CULTURE IN GLOBAL BUSINESS TRANSFORMATION PROJECTS

THE DISCOVERY OF A GROUNDED THEORY

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For two this dissertation is

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Statement of Original Authorship

The work contained in this dissertation has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for an award at this or any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the dissertation contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

Brisbane, 26 November 2012

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Abstract

Presently organisations engage in what is termed as Global Business Transformation Projects [GBTPs], for consolidating, innovating, transforming and restructuring their processes and business strategies while undergoing fundamental change. Culture plays an important role in global business transformation projects as these involve people of different cultural backgrounds and span across countries, industries and disciplinary boundaries. Nevertheless, there is scant empirical research on how culture is conceptualised beyond national and organisational cultures but also on how culture is to be taken into account and dealt with within global business transformation projects.

This research is situated in a business context and discovers a theory that aids in describing and dealing with culture. It draws on the lived experiences of thirty-two senior management practitioners, reporting on more than sixty-one global business transformation projects in which they were actively involved. The research method used is a qualitative and interpretive one and applies a grounded theory approach, with rich data generated through interviews. In addition, vignettes were developed to illustrate the derived theoretical models.

The findings from this study contribute to knowledge in multiple ways. First, it provides a holistic account of global business transformation projects that describe the construct of culture by the elements of culture types, cultural differences and cultural diversity. A typology of culture types has been developed which enlarges the view of culture beyond national and organisational culture including an industry culture, professional service firm culture and 'theme' culture. The amalgamation of the culture types instantiated in a global business transformation project compromises its project culture. Second, the empirically grounded process for managing culture in global business transformation projects integrates the stages of recognition, understanding and management as well as the enablement providing a roadmap for dealing with culture in global business transformation projects. Third, this study identified contextual variables to global business transformation projects, which provide the means of describing the environment global business

transformation projects are situated, influence the construct of culture and inform the process for managing culture. Fourth, the contribution to the research method is the positioning of interview research as a strategy for data generation and the detailed documentation applying grounded theory to discover theory.

Keywords:

Culture, cultural differences, cultural diversity, global business transformation projects, grounded theory, interview, qualitative research

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Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Chapter 1: Exposition

> *The focus of Academia can be defined as not so much a set of topics but as a set of problems. Physicists, economists, historians, and so on have problems that are specific to their fields, and are collectively working on points of intersection in order to solve these problems. Consequently, in every piece of academic writing there is some problem, some issue, some motivating question that is being explored at the heart of every piece of academic writing is academic inquiry.*
>
> -- Unknown, Columbia University, September 2010

Academic interest in culture dates back to Tylor [1832-1917], an anthropologist, who wrote: *"Culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society"* (Tylor, 1871, p. 1). Culture ever since has been deemed to be important and playing a critical role in organisations, and in Global Business Transformation Projects [GBTPs][1] and the culturally diverse environment they operate in (Prahalad & Oosterveld, 1999; Gerstner, 2002; Nohria, Joyce, & Roberson, 2003; Liang, 2009; Rigby & Bilodeau, 2009; Jaruzelski, Loehr, & Holman, 2011; Rigby & Bilodeau, 2011). The academic inquiry of this study focuses on culture in GBTPs.

[1] Global Business Transformation Project [GBTP] as understood in this study is a transnational project or initiative an organisation undergoes that includes the following properties: It is a temporal construct composed of multiple projects and their associated sub-projects, it spans across several geographically dispersed locations, time zones and cultures initiated to deliver on predetermined objectives. [see Chapter 5, section 5.1 The Context: Global Business Transformation Projects]

More precisely, this research seeks to:

- Describe the cultures present in a GBTP
- Determine what constitutes the construct of culture in GBTPs
- Determine how to deal with culture in GBTPs

This chapter states the research problem and the resulting 'abstract wonderment' leading to this study. Thereafter it outlines the core of the applied research strategy and the delimitations of this study and its scope. Finally, it provides an overview of the contributions of this study and concludes with an outline of this dissertations' presentation/structure.

1.1 Problem Statement

As Albert Einstein once wrote: *"The formulation of the problem is often more essential than its solution"* (1938, p. 92). Thus, it is important to clearly state the problem addressed by this research. The problem statement that motivated and informed this study is based on the assumptions that:

- Culture is omnipresent
- Culture is an important

Previous research on culture will be shown to be mostly comparative and concentrating on national, organisational or sub-unit culture. It is invariably on a single level, which sees culture as a static construct. A great amount of research will be seen to be conceptual rather than empirically grounded.

The following sections elaborate on each of these aspects.

1.1.1 Omnipresence of Culture

Over the past decades, several changes have occurred which have affected the environment in which organisations operate. These include the ongoing economic upheaval, globalisation and technological emergence (Prahalad & Oosterveld, 1999), all of which affect or closely relate to culture.

Economic Upheaval: Economic forces are shifting towards an economic upheaval as *"a new economic world order is emerging in extraordinary speed"* (Ward, 2012, p. 1). For instance, over the next two decades China is anticipated to become the world's largest economy. China's cultural environment is not only diverse from a national perspective but also from an organisational perspective in respect to the ownership situation of enterprises [state-owned enterprises; private-owned enterprises; foreign invested enterprises and joint ventures] (Denison, Xin, Guidorz, & Zhang, 2010). At the same time the Chinese business culture is reported to be changing fast which will require western business partners to adapt accordingly (Chua, 2012). But it is not only China and India gaining in economic stature, also other countries such as Nigeria, the Philippines, Peru and Chile becoming more a significant part in the economic environment (Ward, 2012).

Today's workforce is increasingly transforming into a bi-cultural society (Brannen & Thomas, 2010). An example of this experience set is Carlos Ghosn, Chairman and CEO of Nissan Motors. He is a French citizen born in Brazil to a French mother and Lebanese father; he speaks six languages and has lived around the globe. Also, practitioners' overall became more and more culturally aware through work experiences immersed in other countries. Jack Welch anticipated this in a speech to his GE employees more than a decade ago: *"The Jack Welch of the future cannot be like me. I spent my entire career in the United States. The next head of General Electric will be somebody who spent time in Bombay, in Hong Kong, in Buenos Aires. We have to send our best and brightest overseas and make sure they have the training that will allow them to be the global leaders who will make GE flourish in the future"* (Black, Morrison, & Gregersen, 1999, p. 20). The exposure of practitioners to a global work environment may lead to the development of a global identity by senior management practitioners while maintaining their original identity. At the same time, this work and cultural experience enhances their adaptability to different environments (Erez & Gati, 2004).

Globalisation: With the emergence of globalisation and the resulting reduction, or even removal of trade barriers (Leidner, 2010), organisations increase their opportunity to operate across geographically diverse areas and cultures; this is also

referred to as 'transnational emergence'[2] (Walsh, Meyer, & Schoonhoven, 2006). Furthermore, the globalization of markets and competition requires organizations to corporate on an international scale (Evaristo & van Fenema, 1999). In turn, as global work becomes more common organisations are operating across geographically dispersed locations and time zones resulting in increased international competition in the markets the organisations operate (Evaristo & van Fenema, 1999; Testa, Mueller, & Thomas, 2003; Grisham & Srinivasan, 2008). Globalisation leads also to a more disparate and culturally diverse workforce with different attitudes, beliefs and behaviours (Testa, et al., 2003; Mearns & Yule, 2009). Today globalisation is evident in almost any business, and as Robbins comments: *"Organisations are no longer constrained by national borders. Burger King is owned by a British firm, and McDonald's sells hamburgers in Moscow. Exxon, a so-called American company, receives almost 75 per cent of its revenues from sales outside the USA. Toyota makes cars in Kentucky; General Motors makes cars in Brazil; and Ford [which owns part of Mazda] transfers executives from Detroit to Japan to help Mazda manage its operations"* (Robbins, 2001, p. 13).

Culture is central to globalisation (Leidner, 2010) and cultural practices are the heart of globalisation (Tomlinson, 1999). Through globalisation, cultures engage with and influence each other (Leung, Bhagat, Buchan, Erez, & Gibson, 2005). Globalisation, however, does not imply homogeneity of cultures (Walsham, 2001) but, instead, results in a culturally diverse environment where measures of traditional frameworks of culture may not be sufficient to recognise and understand the culture in any given country or place. One effect of globalisation is consolidations, mergers and acquisitions. These are often reported to fail, in part at least because the organisations are incapable of merging their cultures (Clemente & Greenspan, 1999). An example of such a failure is found in the cultural clash resulting from the merger of Daimler and Chrysler in 1998 (Shelton, Hall, & Darling, 2003), which eventually led to a de-merger in 2007.

Overall globalisation raises the need to understand and appropriately respond to culture, and continually adapt and change to differences in behaviour when

[2] Figures from the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development indicate a worldwide increase of transnational organisations from 39.000 in 1993 to 82.000 in 2008 UNCTAD. (2010). *United Nations Conference on Trade and Development: World Investment Report*. New York, NJ: United Nations..

operating across cultures in order to survive (Straub, Loch, Evaristo, Karahanna, & Srite, 2002; Testa, et al., 2003).

Technological Emergence: The majority of businesses relies on information technology [IT] as a key resource widely prescribed to attain competitive advantage (Bharadwaj, 2000). Information technology has become part of the work life in today's globalised markets, practices and cultures (Orlikowski & Scott, 2008). Also, information technology is reported to play a critical role in transforming business (Dehning, Richardson, & Zmud, 2003). More than four decades ago, Drucker compared the emergence of information and communication technologies and its transformative power in society as a reassembly of the industrial revolution (Drucker, 1968). Similarly to globalisation, the role of information and communication technology is not to be underestimated in enabling the managerial control over processes in global markets, but at the same time IT requires evermore information (Leidner, 2010).

There are additional problems arising in IT projects, which are concerned with the management of organisational and cultural issues instead of technical issues (Hartman & Ashrafi, 2002). Inherent to any IT transformation is the shift in behaviours by organising the work into new business processes and the systems that people work with; this is not just about technology - the project must change people's hearts, minds, and habits (Clark, Holland, Phaneuf, & Beurskens, 2012). In other words culture. As IT continues to be introduced to organisations, cultural issues will increase in their importance to organizations (Jackson, 2011). At the same time new technologies may intensify cultural differences, both between and within countries (Hofstede, 2001).

In summary, the result of economic upheaval, globalisation and technological emergence is not only to change and determine the business landscape of today but also to affect the culture in place. Organisations across the world engage in global projects or GBTPs not only in order to survive and meet the demands of a globalised world but also to prepare for the environment in which they operate. These environments are characterised by cultural differences and diversity because of the global scale of the project, rather than to prepare just for one culture. Many organisations have spent billions of dollars in major business transformations (for

example Thorogood, Reynolds, & Yetton, 2011), while others have similar investment plans. According to Sackman and Phillips *"Culture is a phenomenon that neither management scholars nor practitioners can afford to ignore when facing the realities of today's business world, regardless of where they are physically located, where they conduct their work, or what their specific discipline or function may be"* (Sackmann & Phillips, 2004, p. 370). Thus, the importance of culture to both research and practice is highlighted.

The next section highlights the importance of culture and its ambiguous nature being a source of both success, and/or failure.

1.1.2 Importance of Culture

"Culture isn't just one aspect of the game - it is the game" (Gerstner, 2002, p. 182) said Louis Gerstner, former chairman of IBM. According to Leung *"there are very few instances where culture does not matter at all"* (Leung, et al., 2005, p. 368). Culture is one of the most popular and widely used words, and Google lists more search results for 'culture', than for 'politics', 'money', or 'sex' (Taras, Steel, & Kirkman, 2012, p. 2). Nevertheless *"culture is one of the two or three most complicated words in the English language"* (Williams, 1976, p. 77).

Culture is commonly associated with national culture which is describe as *"the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another [or] the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence a human group's response to its environment"* (Hofstede, 1980, p. 25). Organisational culture is described as *"the sum total of all shared, taken for granted assumptions that a group has learned throughout its history"* (Schein, 1985, p. 29). Scholars often refuse to define culture (Kraut, 1975) because it is a complex construct explained by terms including behaviour, values, norms or basic assumptions and is difficult to define (Groeschl & Doherty, 2000). This study, instead of attempting to define culture, agrees with the statement that culture is *"a loosely structured and incompletely shared system that emerges dynamically as cultural members experience each other, events, and the organisation's contextual features"* (Martin, 1992, p. 152).

Culture, and the effect of cultural differences when doing business across nations, was noted more than half a century back by Hall who emphasised the need for understanding of *"the salient languages of other cultures"* (Hall, 1960, p. 96). Culture is an integral part to organizations and GBTPs (Prahalad & Oosterveld, 1999; Gerstner, 2002; Nohria, et al., 2003; Liang, 2009; Rigby & Bilodeau, 2009; Jaruzelski, et al., 2011; Rigby & Bilodeau, 2011). However, despite its reported significance, the construct of culture in business initiatives such as GPTPs often remains a mystery, invisible and blurred.

Culture is reported as important as strategy for business success (Rigby & Bilodeau, 2009, 2011) and identified as one of four primary management practices, next to strategy, execution and structure (Nohria, et al., 2003). Culture is fundamental to all actions, operations, and relationships in an organisation (McNabb & Sepic, 1995) and plays a vital role wherever humans are involved (Liang, 2009). In the organisational literature, culture refers to something desirable that increases the organisational effectiveness and competitiveness and therefore requires to be managed (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006). In 1978, Ouchi declared that leaders with the foresight to plan ahead considering culture will gain a competitive advantage (Ouchi & Price, 1978) and, in 2012, Katzenbach and colleagues declared that culture trumps strategy any time (Katzenbach, Steffen, & Kronley, 2012).

The importance of culture has often been emphasised by business leaders, which shows the awareness of culture and its imperative role. Examples of some well-known quotes are:

> *"If you get the culture right, most of the other stuff will just take care of itself."*
>
> [Tony Hsieh, Founder and CEO Zappos.com]
>
> *"Organizational culture it the life blood of a company"*
>
> [Steve Ellis, Managing Director of Bain & Company]

In addition, an increasing number of research articles that report work on culture is seen as evidence that culture is important to research and practice (Davison & Martinsons, 2003; Hinds, Liu, & Lyon, 2011) despite evidence of such studies being inconsistent and 'sketchy' (Niederman, Alhorr, Park, & Tolmie, 2012). In a recent review, Niederman and colleagues identified culture as one of the 'elemental

global information management' topics of the past decade. In their view culture is described as the *"systematic variations in norms and behaviours based on national, regional, historic and organisational affiliations"* (Niederman, et al., 2012, p. 22). They further stress the importance of culture being *"a central and highly connected topic"* (Niederman, et al., 2012, p. 37) as well as a core element to the functioning of virtual teams (Niederman, et al., 2012) which are a characteristic part of most projects, GBTPs (Evaristo & van Fenema, 1999).

In its acknowledged importance *"the concept of culture continues to strike managers and management oriented writers as a key variable in the success or failure"* (Detert, Schroeder, & Mauriel, 2000, p. 850). Culture, on one hand, is reported as a great source of success while on the other hand, as an obstacle and root cause for reoccurring failure. Culture has been perceived to play a major role to organisations success ever since early work by several scholars: Hall (1976), Ouchi (1981), Peters and Watermann (1982), Schein (1985) and Ohmae (1991). Myers and Tan (2002) concluded their review of Information Systems research on national cultures by saying that consent exists on the importance of understanding culture; and also that this understanding can lead to successful IT deployment in a global setting. The establishment of a culture is reported to be key to successful business transformations (Prahalad & Oosterveld, 1999), and both cultural and human aspects are central to business transformations (Capgemini, 2009). Furthermore, successful global business transformations are reported as paying attention to 'people issues' (Keller, Meaney, & Pung, 2011).

At the same time as culture has been identified being key to organisational success it has also been reported as the main cause of a project's failure (Dinsmore, 1984; Verma, 1995; Kaplan, 2000; Davison & Martinsons, 2003; Leidner & Kayworth, 2006). Studies over the years consistently suggest a failure rate beyond 60 per cent of large-scale change efforts are mostly due to organisational issues such as employee resistance or management's resistant to change (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Beer & Nohria, 2000) and the cited reason why two-thirds of all business transformations fail (Meaney & Pung, 2008; Ashurst & Hodges, 2010). Information Systems adoptions often fail due to the mismatch of the cultures in the place and the information systems introduced (Davison & Martinsons, 2003).

In summary, the role of culture in projects such as GPTPs is acknowledged as important, but its constitution often remains a mystery to both academic and practitioners. *"Culture hides much more than it reveals"* (Edward T. Hall in Moran, Harris, & Moran, 2007, p. 305) and although culture is widely perceived as intangible, *"culture is all that invisible stuff that glues organisations together"* [HBS Blog[3]]. In practice, *"culture goes mostly unnoticed by groups until there is some cultural conflict"* (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006, p. 373). In other words, people are mostly unaware of culture up to the point at which they encounter an issue. In short, culture is contagious, everyone talks about culture, and highlights its importance but at the same time it is hard to understand the entirety of the construct of culture and its potential implications. It is difficult to know how to deal with culture within an organisation. Thus it appears urgent and essential to decode the black box of culture.

The next section will provide a review of previous research on culture.

1.1.3 Previous Research on Culture

The best-known and most referenced work on culture, especially national cultures is 'Cultural Consequences'[4] by Geert Hofstede. It defines five dimensions of culture: Power distance; Uncertainty avoidance; Individualism vs. Collectivism; Masculinity vs. Femininity; and Long-, versus Short-term orientation (Hofstede, 2001, p. 29). Another dimension namely Indulgence vs. Restraint (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010) was added to this in 2010 based on Michael Minkov's analysis of the World Value Survey data for 93 countries reflecting the importance of leisure or hard work in life. Hofstede's work remains ground-breaking for scholars across disciplines despite Hofstede himself who says, *"I never studied culture"*[5] (Hofstede, 2003, p. 811). Nevertheless, according to Chapman, Hofstede's work is central to academic dealing with cultural matters in the business and management arena (Chapman, 1996).

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[3] http://blogs.hbr.org/cs/2011/03/culture_trumps_strategy_every.html#comments Last assessed 23 March 2011

[4] Cultural Consequences by Geert Hofstede 1980 cited 26349 times and 2001 cited 8654 times http://scholar.google.com.au/scholar?as_q=cultural+consequences&as_epq=&as_oq=&as_eq=&as_oct=any&as_sauthors=hofstede&as_publication=&as_ylo=&as_yhi=&hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&as_vis=1 Last assessed 8 October 2012

[5] Seen in the context that sociologists and anthropologists are rarely cited his work.

As with any major theory Hofstede's work is critiqued widely (McSweeney, 2002b, 2002a; Baskerville, 2003; Baskerville-Morley, 2005; McSweeney, 2009; Mearns & Yule, 2009) and also from an IS perspective (Walsham, 2001; Myers & Tan, 2002). This critique is best summarised by Baskerville-Morley (2005); Hofstede did not intend to study culture with the data collected; he sees culture as a territorially unique nation states; his view is not supported by the current anthropological perspective and his model does not allow for relationships between the national culture types. One critique most relevant to GBTPs is, that when seen through the lens of Hofstede's work, culture is seen as a stable and monolithic concept, where groups are anticipated to be homogenous and hence excluding subcultures (McSweeney, 2002b). Also, such a simplified model of cultural dimensions does not facilitate the explanation of complex relationships between cultures (Myers & Tan, 2002; Baskerville, 2003). Hofstede himself qualifies his research as ongoing *"I see my work as exploratory research, not as finished work. Inspired by Karl Popper* (1959)*, I made an effort to formulate my conclusions in a tentative and falsifiable way"* (Hofstede, 2003, p. 813).

Despite the criticism, Hofstede's work has been a significant influence on management studies in general and specifically to cross-cultural IS research (Myers & Tan, 2002). As such Hofstede's cultural model is instrumental to comparative studies as countries can be positioned relative to each other and according to the score[6] of the cultural dimension.

Next to national culture the most widely researched area is organisational culture, notably by the widely referenced works of Schein (1985), Martin (1992) and Cameron & Quinn (2006). Edgar Schein, one of the most respected theorists dealing with organisational culture delineates three levels of culture: artefacts, exposed values, and underlying assumptions (Schein, 2004). Furthermore Schein (1984) suggests that organisational culture is something that can be managed and changed, at least in some organisations. Schein's model of culture is perceived as useful to both management and academia alike (Christensen & Shu, 2006).

[6] The scores of the cultural dimensions by country can be found at http://geert-hofstede.com/countries.html

Culture research within Information Systems has a long tradition. Margrethe Olson was one of the first IS researchers to discuss the relationship between IT and organisational culture (Olson, 1982). Other early work includes that of Stephen Barley, who found that the meaning of technology differs from culture to culture (Barley, 1986) and highlights the importance of the cultural setting or scene that a GBTP is situated in. The cultural meaning emerges over time with the experience people gain with information technology (Robey & Rodriguez-Diaz, 1989); this is an indication that culture is rather dynamic and changing rather than static.

Thorough reviews of past on culture research in Information Systems were performed by Gallivan and Srite (2005), Leidner and Kayworth (2006), Kappos and colleagues (2008) as well as Niedermann and colleagues (2012). The seminal paper by Leidner and Kayworth (2006) reviewing 82 articles identified six themes: [1] Culture in information systems development; [2] Culture, IT adoption, and diffusion; [3] Culture, IT use and outcomes; [4] Culture, IT management and strategy; [5] IT's influence on culture; and [6] IT culture. These fall into three patterns: impact of culture on IT [Theme 1-4], impact of IT on culture [Theme 5] and IT culture [Theme 6]. Also, they identified the need for cultural fit. Information Systems research deals fairly extensive with national culture (Gallupe & Tan, 1999; Leidner & Kayworth, 2006). Most research thereby focuses on testing and validating Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions. Only a very few examples studied culture without predefined cultural archetypes (Myers & Tan, 2002). One example is Thanasankit and Corbitt (2000), which was an ethnographic study on the impact of Thai culture on the requirement engineering process. In practice the majority of studies on culture in the information systems space tend to compare different national culture, investigate intercultural interactions or try to explain such as an IT adoption with culture as reported by Rivard and colleagues (2011) in explaining the difficulties of a clinical information system implementation in the context of organisational culture.

Overall these studies in the culture space tend to be comparative, investigate culture on a single level, and see culture as a static construct, not evolving over time or with experience. Moreover, a great part of them are conceptual rather than empirical studies.

Comparative Studies: Comparative studies often result in significant contributions to the understanding of cultural differences and cultural

incompatibilities. These studies evolve around understanding cultural attitudes or differences (Ives & Jarvenpaa, 1991; Tractinsky & Jarvenpaa, 1995; Myers & Tan, 2002; Niederman, et al., 2012), most of which are mainly on a national level. The seminal paper from Leidner and Kayworth (2006) showed that 51 of 82 papers reviewed focus on national culture, however these rarely reported on multinational IT project teams. Most studies favour Hofstede's dimensions of culture theory (Straub, 1994; Watson, Ho, & Raman, 1994; Tan, Watson, & Wei, 1995; Myers & Tan, 2002; Ford & Chan, 2003; Leidner & Kayworth, 2006). Shortcomings to these studies are that they often do not aim to understand the implications of these national differences, nor do they lead to viable predictions (Hinds, et al., 2011). Particularly, understanding cultural differences just on a national level has been commented on as being too simplistic (Myers & Tan, 2002) for cultural differences do not have to be just between nations. Cultural differences may exist even within a nation itself as shown by the Peppas' United States' study (Peppas, 2001) and Chervier's Switzerland study (Chevrier, 2009). This suggests that culture research should move beyond the emphasis on national culture (Myers & Tan, 2002).

Single Level: Cultural research in information systems rarely consists of multilevel studies of culture as it is primarily conducted on a single level (Karahanna, Evaristo, & Srite, 2005). Most studies ignore the existence of multiple levels of culture by focusing on selected aspects only (Cray & Mallory, 1998), such as national, organisational, and sub-unit culture (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006). As a consequence, their findings may not be applicable in an increasingly globalised contemporary environment that requires *"multicultural models consisting of multiple cultures, subcultures and countercultures* [that] *better represent contemporary organisations"* (Karahanna, et al., 2005, p. 2). Moreover, culture-related theories developed in one country have limited success when applied in another setting (Hofstede, Bond, & Luk, 1993). In addition, research treats cross-cultural research and research on an organisational level as separated streams of research (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006).

In practice as one cannot objectively analyse culture on a single level (Martin, Feldman, Hatch, & Sitkin, 1983), one is to consider multiple levels of culture (Pettigrew, 1990). Straub, Loch, Evaristo, Karahanna and Srite (2002) point out that culture from a realistic view is to be seen as being simultaneously influenced by

multiple cultural values. *"A Singaporean analyst working at an IBM branch in his home country could be influenced by his own national values as well as the organizational values of IBM and those of his professional subculture [systems analyst] cohort"* (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006, p. 380). In the same line of thought, research and practice treats culture mostly as a homogenous construct and the potential of competing values is often not considered despite the fact that *"it is unlikely that a group's values will ever be fully embedded in a given system"* (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006, p. 375). This suggests that to study culture is not only to examine one culture; instead it is take into account the culture types present and also to examine interactions between the culture types.

A number of studies point also to the importance of the multi-level character of the cultural construct in a global context (Gallivan & Srite, 2005; Karahanna, et al., 2005) (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006; Huang & Trauth, 2010). Karahanna and colleagues (2005) and propose a supranational, national, professional, organisational, group and individual level of culture explained in a sort of cultural 'onion' model. In this model, the levels of cultures are compared to the layers of an onion that needs to be peeled off layer by layer in order to be understood and to avoid perceptions (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Fink and Mayrhofer (2009) also identify different levels of culture, namely: world, supra-national units, countries, companies, networks of organisations, groups and individual which are in a decreasing order in their social complexity. In practice a multiplicity of cultures, culture groups or levels of culture develop, exist or co-exist within an organisational setting (Sackmann & Phillips, 2004).

Static Construct: Culture can either be seen as static or as a dynamic construct. Clifford characterised culture as being dynamic, for: *"Culture is contested, temporal and emergent"* (Clifford, 1986, p. 19). Others affirm that view, such as Avison and Myers (1995) and later Myers and Tan (2002). However, most of the research on culture to date applies a value-based perspective of culture that is static (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006; Pang, Sharma, Lederman, & Dreyfus, 2010). This static view of culture assumes that culture is stable and monolithic; this view sees cultural groups as homogeneous, and excludes subcultures as well as, further assuming that they remain stable over time (McSweeney, 2002b). These studies rely on and often extend or test the seminal work of Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions or Schein's values

(1984) (Hinds, et al., 2011); most studies take these seminal publications as a reference point.

Resulting frameworks specify cultural differences and contribute towards the understanding of culture. However they do not necessarily reflect the construct of culture present in GBTPs, which are situated in a temporal, and continuously changing environment determined by economic upheaval, globalisation and technological emergence. In addition, these frameworks, both for national as well as organisational culture, tend to downplay the dynamics of culture by categorising culture into dichotomous frames (Jackson, 2011). Jackson's example shows that high job orientation portrays a rigid management style but this orientation provides less indication of the effect on other social relations. A dynamic view of culture (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006; Pang, et al., 2010; Hinds, et al., 2011) is more appropriate to represent the GBTPs construct of culture that encompasses multiple physical locations across different cultures further shaped by external forces such as contextual variables. Also, there is a recurring call for *"a more contextual and dynamic view of culture"* (Hinds, et al., 2011, p. 136) calling for *"studies* [that] *need to move beyond trying to use cultural values to predict"* (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006, p. 366). A dynamic view accommodates the external and also the internal elements of organisations, which are ever changing (McAleese & Hargie, 2004).

Conceptual: Despite the fact that culture has been studied extensively in the past, many of these studies are of a conceptual nature rather than grounded in empirical data. Examples of such conceptual studies include Straub et al. (2002), Gallivan and Srite (2005), Karahanna et al. (2005), Leidner and Kayworth (2006), Kappos and Rivard (2008), Leidner (2010), or Niederman and colleagues (2012). These works often provide conceptual models to be validated or attempt to classify past studies. Niederman and colleagues classified studies in the culture space as follows: one-country studies, studies of countries across region types, Management Information Systems [MIS] studies in an alternative setting, and global IT issues (Niederman, Boggs, & Kundu, 2002). The work of Leidner and Kayworth (2006) provides an excellent overview examining 82 articles that delineate the concepts behind culture and information systems development: culture, IT adoption, and diffusion; culture, IT use, and outcomes; culture, IT management, and strategy; IT's influence on culture; and IT culture. Leidner (2010) in her later work distinguishes

between three waves of IS culture research as identifying cultural differences, explaining cultural differences, and managing cultural differences. Nevertheless, research tends to be scattered across rather than integrated within these three waves of IS research. Also reviews of literature did not provide an in-depth means of assessing culture and the means of such in organizations or GBTPs.

In 1990 Edgar Schein (1990) called for 'serious' research that must be empirically determined and not presumed from the superficial but his call has gone mostly unheard. Similarly, Myers and Tan (2002) urged for more in-depth studies on culture. For example, an in-depth qualitative inquiry such as ethnographic research despite a smaller sample size *"leads to more certain and precise understanding of the societies under investigation"* (d'Iribarne, 1996, p. 30). Rare examples of such work include the interpretive study on the impact of culture on IT adoption by Hasan and Dista (1999), the work of Thanasankit and Corbitt (2000) an ethnographic study on the understanding of the impact of Thai culture on requirement engineering processes or more recent Walsh et al. (2010) who describe an IT user culture and its implications for organisational IT strategy.

In summary, despite the amount of research in the culture space it appears IS research has not kept pace with the importance of culture. Existing work is predominantly comparative, studies culture on a single level, understands culture as a static construct, and is often of a conceptual nature. Moreover, it does not describe culture on an abstract conceptual level nor does it provide a model on how to deal with culture. As a result, the 'big picture' of what culture is, what it relates to and how to deal with it remains mysterious. At the same time culture is repeatedly stated to play a significant role whenever individuals of different cultural backgrounds interact with each other and this applies to GBTPs as well as organisations operating in a culturally diverse environment. Culture is omnipresent in the business environment in which GBTPs are situated and yet *"the fundamental concept of culture has not been systematically examined, nor has the proliferation of cultural frameworks* [..] *we need to re-examine the construct of culture"* (Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007, p. 460).

This body of completed research leads to the abstract wonderment presented in the next section on what this study sets out to explore.

1.2 Abstract Wonderment

The term ‘abstract wonderment’ is a trigger for grounded theory research. In contrast to other qualitative research, in grounded theory the researcher enters the field with a ‘abstract wonderment’ (Glaser, 1992) to investigate an area rather than aiming to address a research question (Van Niekerk & Roode, 2009). In the absence of preconceived ideas, and extant theory to force data for verification and research questions *“*[the researcher] *moves with the abstract wonderment of what is going on that is an issue and how it is handled”* (Glaser, 1992, p. 22) and seeks to find the core process that continually resolves the main concern of the subjects. Relevant literature is interwoven where applicable when presenting and discussing the findings. This abstract wonderment eventually leads to guiding research questions, which are informed by the emergent problem and guide the theoretical sampling.

The abstract wonderment of this study revolved around the gaps identified in the problem statement, based on an preliminary literature review paired with the researcher’s substantive experience in the field of investigation, and the researcher’s motivations but also from the researcher’s conversations with senior management practitioners working in cultural diverse environment or working with different cultures. This abstract wonderment is formulated in two questions:

- What constitutes the construct of culture in GBTPs?
- How to deal with culture in GBTPs?

Answering these questions is envisaged to address the scarcity and at the same time demand for knowledge. In retrospect the abstract wonderment was sufficiently broad allowing flexibility for multiple lines of inquiry in the initial phase of the research while the focus of inquiry unfolds.

The next section introduces the research strategy applied in this study designed to discover theory grounded in data.

1.3 Research Strategy

This study set to discover theory on how culture is described and dealt with in GBTPs. This required a research strategy that allows for the generation of rich data

and the discovery of new theory from that data. Hence, the research strategy adopted in this study was qualitative and interpretive following the principles of Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) where data is generated through interviews. Grounded Theory is a robust method that emphasises the discovery of theory *"to discover what is going on, rather than assuming what should go on"* (Glaser, 1978, p. 159). It is useful in an area where knowledge is fragmented but also seeks to connect theory to the empirical reality. Following the advice of Clifford Geertz, the study was grounded in current practice, for *"if you want to understand what a science is you should look in the first instance not at its theories or its findings, and certainly not what its apologists say about it; you should look at what the practitioners of it do"* (Clifford Geertz in Van Maanen, 1988, p. 73). At the same time, the study employed interview research as strategy for data generation as this approach allowed the researcher to gain insights from multiple perspectives to GBPTs in various cultural contexts and industries, including perspectives with different scope and composition. The researcher's own lived experience in the field of investigation allowed him to add to the research when engaging with interviewees of different cultural backgrounds, but also to better understand and consequently interpret the lived experiences reported by interviewees.

Data for this study was generated on an individual level through interviews with thirty-two senior management practitioners [who are the interviewees], working for either multinational organizations or professional service firms. These interviews took place over a period of two years [February 2009 to January 2011]. Interviewing individuals also ensured the depth of inquiry, while the sampling of individuals catered for the breath of inquiry. This sampling was done using selective and theoretical sampling method.

Grounded theory data analysis followed the procedures of open coding, selective coding and theoretical coding paired with the analytical techniques of theoretical sampling, memo writing and constant comparative analysis outlined by Glaser (1967). Further, vignettes were employed to illustrate the derived theoretical models and attribute the interviewees' voice.

The next section delimits the study's scope, while the research process is detailed in Chapter 2, data generation in Chapter 3 and grounded theory data analysis in Chapter 4.

1.4 Delimitation of Scope

Delimitations and limitations are essential considerations to take into account when designing research as they create borders and focus the scope of research. While delimitations narrow down the scope, limitations identify potential weaknesses to the study (Creswell, 2003). The limitations emerged over the conduct of this study are addressed in Chapter 8, section 'Limitations', while section 'Future Work' of the same Chapter outlines how these may be addressed in future work.

This study was triggered by the abstract wonderment of what constitutes the construct of culture in GBTPs and how to deal with culture in GBTPs. The main concern of inquiry is on the cultural related aspects salient in the lived experience of senior management practitioners in their work within GBTPs. In concordance with the nature of grounded theory further delimitations emerged over the course of this study as its core crystallised. This is a natural process in grounded theory and a result of the selective coding used in grounded theory data analysis which concentrates on the core category and successively filters down from there. As an example, the basic social process [core category] of dealing with culture was found to be the main concern within the data referring to the management of culture, rather than the building, changing or establishing of a culture to which literature often refers. In turn, attention was paid to the recognition of categories, and the understanding, management and enablement of culture rather than to the establishment of a culture. This was also applied to the core category of describing culture.

The delimitations to the study's scope at the outset of this study were in regards to its focus; context and perspective taken, which defined the research scene, as well as of practical nature. These delimitations evolved over the conduct of this study as themes were discovered in the data. The principal focus was on the most interesting attributes relating to the abstract wonderment of the role of culture and its manifestations in global business transformation projects. The delimitations are elaborated below.

Focus: The thematic focus of this study is to use grounded theory to discover an emergent theory in the empirical data that will aid in:

- Describing culture
- Dealing with culture

as culture is manifested in Global Business Transformation Projects [GBTPs].

This study's aim was to explore the field and discover theory, and it did not aim to quantify or validate previous or emerging findings by means of quantitative analysis, which is in the scope of future work. Also, this study was not to examine the success or determinants of successful GBTPs in respect to culture, or a correlation between culture and performance. Similarly, the GBTPs that interviewees reported were not compared and contrasted as in the tradition of case study research. Future work may take up these streams of derivative research.

Research Scene: The research scene of this study is described by the research context, Global Business Transformation Projects [GBTPs] and the adopted perspective of senior management practitioners.

The *research context* was a set of Global Business Transformation Projects [GBTPs]. While at the outset of this study these were mostly process orientated and the core of inquiry was of their initiation phase, as the study progressed interviewees referred to many GBTPs independent of their scope, objective or phase. Organisations themselves were not studied.

The *perspective* taken in this study was limited to interviewees who were senior practitioners working at a managerial level. They were interviewed about their lived experiences of past and current GBTPs in which they were involved as either an employee of an organisation undertaking the GBTPs or as an external party engaged in a GBTP, such as a professional services firm.

The research scene of this study is detailed to greater extend in Chapter 5.

Practical: A practical limitation of this study is that the application of the interview method as strategy for data generation still only provided a snapshot of the cultural aspects, despite the depth and breadth of the interviews. Ideally, without the restraints of access, time and resources, multiple organisations undergoing GBTPs could have been studied in-depth through multiple cases studies or in an ethnographic tradition.

This study is not exhaustive and requires future work to be followed up which is outlined in Chapter 8, section 'Future Work'. The next section highlights the contributions of this study.

1.5 Contributions of this Study

The contribution of this study is the discovery of a substantive theory developed through the application of 'Glaserian' grounded theory, leading to a theoretical model of the construct of culture found in GBTPs and a processual model of the process for managing culture in GBTPs. The discovered theory is empirically grounded, takes a multilevel perspective of culture and sees culture as a dynamic, changing construct. Also, it provides a holistic account of culture rather than comparing culture types present in GBTPs. Further contributions are made to practice and the research method. In contrast to the majority of studies on culture, the discovered theory has a unique empirical grounding. The data generated from interviews with thirty-two senior management practitioners, significant individuals, and renowned experts in their field across the globe reports on sixty-one GBTPs. Vignettes were employed to illustrate the discovered theoretical models with thick descriptions of real world experiences reported by the interviewees and provide insights to the data.

The following summarises the contributions of this study.

Theoretical Model of the Construct of Culture: This model allows for the description of culture types and proposes a processual model of the means to manage culture thus dealing with culture. Both elements are in their constitution, extent and intent not only markedly distinct from existing models but also advances research by empirically grounding the discovered theory in data. This discovered theory takes a dynamic and multilevel view of culture through decoding the abstract wonderment of the nature of culture in GBTPs and the means of dealing with culture's manifestation.

The theoretical model of the construct of cultural in GBTPs is explained using the observed culture types, which are further detailed in the typology of culture

types. This model leads to the elicitation of cultural differences but also to the observation of cultural diversity through concurrent expressions of these culture types. Cultural differences allow us to identify culture types and concurrent expression of culture types lead to cultural diversity. The typology of culture types conceptualises culture beyond the well-known national and organisational culture by identifying other forms of culture types including an industry culture, a professional service firm culture and a 'theme' culture. This model may have a significant implication to research and practice in the culture space as it takes a more holistic perspective of culture, is not biased by a single culture type, and caters for the fluid nature of culture. Existing models of culture can even be adapted by including the identified culture types, which will allow for an expanded and more complete view and thus better understanding of the construct of culture. Figure 1-1 below illustrates the construct of cultural in GBTPs.

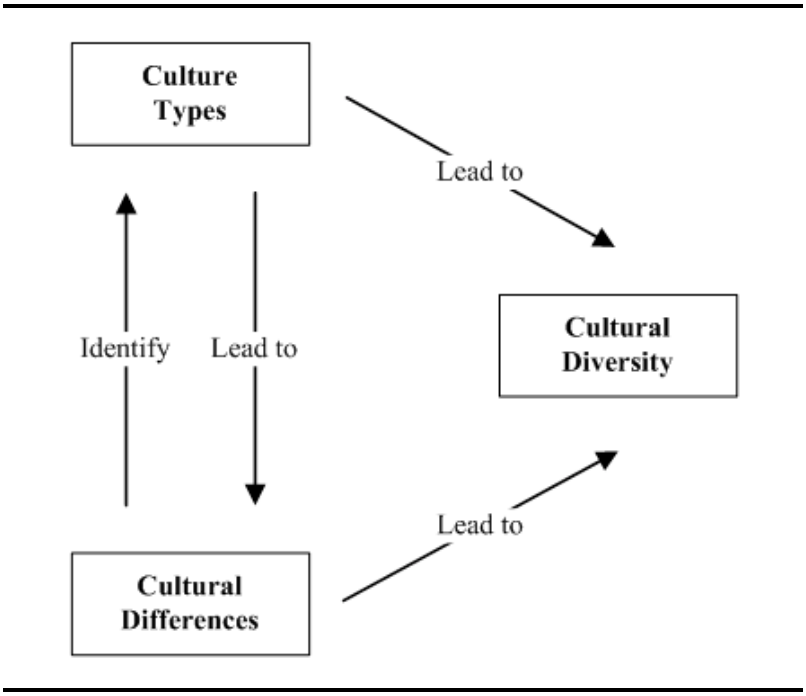

Figure 1-1: Theoretical Model of the Construct of Culture

In addition, this study identified contextual variables to GBTPs, namely: geographically dispersed locations, languages, and information technology. These contextual variables provide the means of describing the environment in which GBTPs exist, scene of the GBTP. Furthermore, the contextual variables influence the construct of culture and inform the processual model.

Processual Model of the Process for Managing Culture: The processual model integrates the three stages [categories]: recognition, understanding and management as well as the category of enablement in a basic social process. This model is in line with Grounded Theory abstract of time, people and place explaining the behaviour, with the stages resolving around the main concern of inquiry of how to deal with culture (Glaser, 2002). All stages are achieved through the enablement of the following series: recognition allows understanding, which allows for the management of culture or regresses back to recognition, the management of culture may continue or regresses back to understanding or recognition. The processual model on the one hand is informed by the construct of culture and the contextual variables of the GBTP. On the other hand, the stage recognition identifies and apprehends the construct of culture and its contextual variables, the stage understanding analyses and comprehends these, while the stage of management plans and executes the necessary measures in dealing with culture. Figure 1-2 displays the processual model of the process for managing culture.

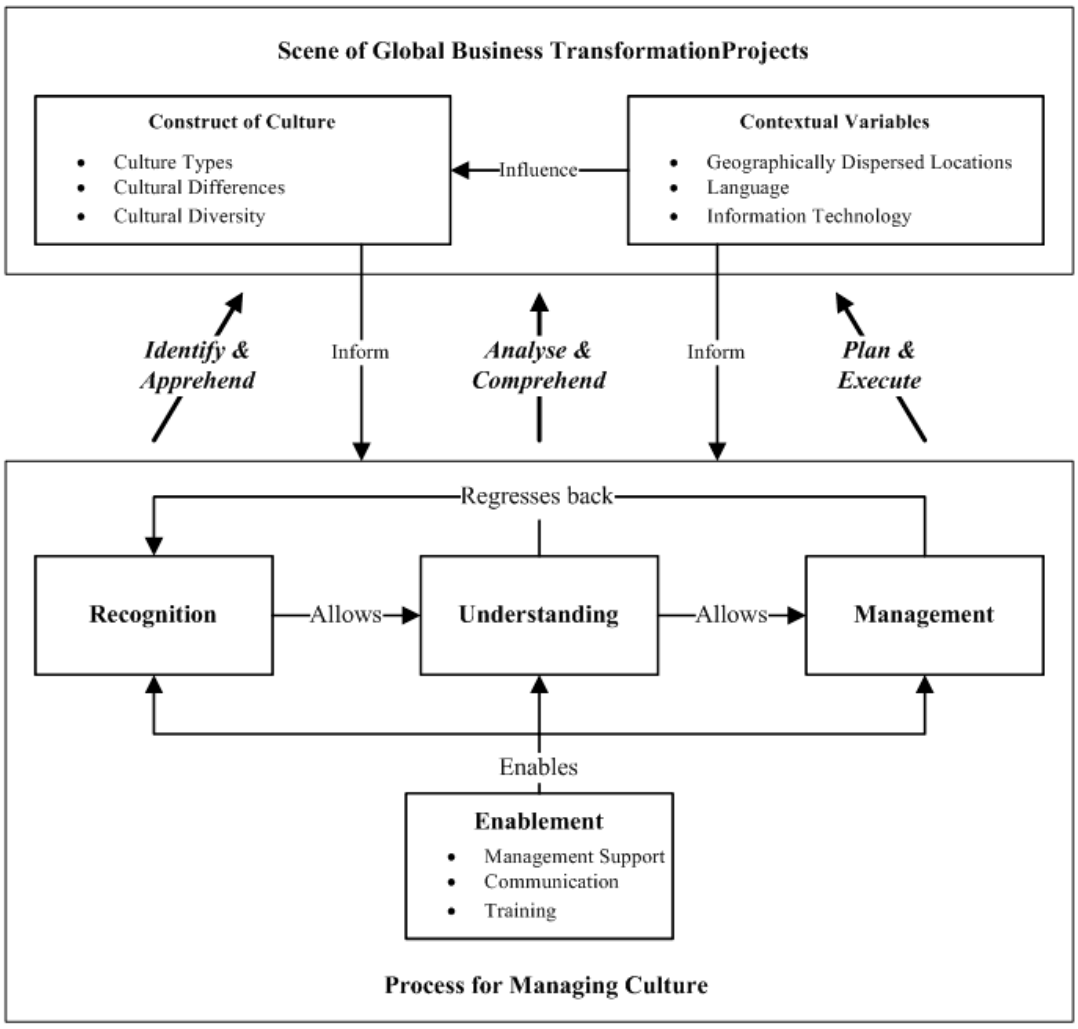

Figure 1-2: Processual Model of the Process for Managing Culture

The processual model provides a solution in dealing with culture; it closes the gap in existing work on building a culture or changing culture. Also, it is conjectured to complement existing change management or project management methodologies by adding on the cultural aspects.

Practice: This study has a number of contributions for senior management practitioners working in GBTPs. The discovered theory is conjectured to be of great benefit to any organisation undergoing a GBTP as well as operating in a culturally diverse environment. On the one hand, the construct of culture provides a means for analysing and assessing the current culture while the typology of culture types expands the view of culture types that may be present in a GBTP. Together with the contextual variables this allows to describe the scene of the GBTP or organisation.

On the other hand, the process for managing culture provides a guideline, not a cookbook of how to deal with culture emphasising on the recognition and understanding of the construct of culture and its implications. Overall, the discovered theoretical models are envisaged as being a valuable aid to practitioners to better understand and deal with culture in the environment they operating in.

Research Method: This study contributes to the research method by a well-documented research design to discover theory combining interview research as strategy for data generation along with grounded theory analysis. This combination not only proved to be an excellent apparatus to study the volatile and complex construct of culture in GBTPs, it also addressed the recurring call for creative in-depth cross-cultural research (Hunter, 2001; Myers & Tan, 2002), understanding 'how' and 'why' culture unfolds (Jackson, 2011) beyond the traditional theoretical and methodological approaches (Sarker & Sahay, 2003). Interview research as applied in this study allowed combining the breath and depth of inquiry, generating rich in-depth data from a broad data sample.

In addition, the researcher's own lived experience in the field of investigation is conjectured to complement the research approach. A researcher experienced in the field of investigation may have access to data otherwise inaccessible. This privileged position stems from his insider knowledge in the field, professional network and ability to interact with senior practitioners as an equal. Similarly, for data analysis, knowing the field allows better understanding and interpreting of the generated data and recognising its peculiarities.

In summary, the most important contribution of this research is to explain the seemingly multifaceted and complex construct of culture in a parsimonious way, which further allows us to decode the significant problem of understanding and dealing with culture in GBTPs.

The next section provides an outline of the subsequent chapters of this study before going on to Chapter 2 that introduces the research process to discover theory that is grounded in data.

1.6 Structure of this Dissertation

There are eight chapters to this dissertation, which is organized as follows:

Chapter One, Exposition - This chapter introduces the problem statement leading to the 'abstract wonderment' about which this study revolves. It provides an overview of the current state of research in the area of culture and outlines the research strategy taken, delimits the study's scope as well as summarises the contributions of this study.

Chapter Two, Research Process to Discover Theory Grounded in Data - This chapter details the research paradigm, justifies the research operationalization and elaborates on theory.

Chapter Three, Data Generation - This chapter introduces and positions the strategy of 'Interview Research' for data generation and details its operationalization framed as a dramaturgical model in the context of this study. It further details the applied sampling strategy.

Chapter Four, Grounded Theory Data Analysis - This chapter details the principles of the applied method for data analysis, grounded theory and its application in this study.

Chapter Five, Research Scene - This chapter elaborates first on the study's context, the concept of Global Business Transformation Projects [GBTP], and the perspective of the senior management practitioners who participated in this study. It then details the discovered contextual variables to GBTPs, which are used to further describe these. Chapter five concludes with a detailed account of the demographics of participating senior management practitioners [interviewees] and the GBTPs they reported on.

Chapter Six, Construct of Culture in Global Business Transformation Projects - This chapter introduces and elaborates on the discovered theoretical model of the construct of culture by detailing its elements: culture types, cultural differences and cultural diversity as well as their relationships. The discovered culture types of industry culture, professional service firm culture and 'theme' culture as well as well established national and organisational cultures are further depicted in the typology of culture types. Furthermore, vignettes were employed to illustrate the empirical grounding of the discovered theoretical models.

Chapter Seven, Managing Culture in Global Business Transformation Projects - This chapter presents the empirically grounded processual model of the process for managing culture that allows the inclusion of cultural factors in GBTPs. This integrates the stages [categories] of recognition, understanding, and management as well as the category of enablement. Five vignettes were employed to illustrate the processual model of the process for managing culture.

Chapter Eight, Closure - This last and final chapter reviews the preceding chapters and highlights the contributions and discusses their implications, and reflects on the goodness of the discovered theory. Chapter eight then notes limitations to this study and outlines future work before concluding the study.

Chapter 2: Research Process to Discover Theory Grounded in Data

Nothing has such power to broaden the mind as the ability to investigate systematically and truly all that comes under thy observation in life.

-- Marcus Aurelius

Theory building is the *"process or recurring cycle by which coherent descriptions, explanations, and representations of observed or experienced phenomena are generated, verified and refined"* (Lynham, 2000, p. 162). The research design in this study is to describe this process, namely, 'The Process for Discovering Theory' and the phases it encompasses. The aim of this chapter is to elaborate on the research process of this study as well as to introduce and justify its research paradigm and the research approach adopted.

Chapter 2 first outlines the study's research processes, it then explains the qualitative nature and interpretive position of this study. Thereafter it argues for the adaption of the 'Glaserian' grounded theory as an approach to operationalise the research. This chapter concludes with an elaboration on theory. The operationalisation of the research process is then detailed in the subsequent Chapters 3, data generation and Chapter 4, grounded theory data analysis.

2.1 The Process for Discovering Theory

Theory is an attempt to *"model some theoretical aspects of the real world"* that *"make sense of the observable world by ordering the relationship among elements that constitute the theorist's focus of attention in the real world"* (Dubin, 1976, p. 26). Theory consists of two elements: concepts, and the relationships between concepts. These relationships are a key element of theory, which can be described as the 'how' or the nature of the relationship and 'why' or the reason for the relationship (Whetten, 1989).

The outlined phases of the research process in the 'The Process for Discovering Theory' are also an effort to counteract the oft-stated criticism of interpretive qualitative research as being too subjective. According to Weick (1989) theory only can be improved if the process to theorize is improved, which only can be improved if explicitly described, executed more self-consciously, and uncoupled from theory validation.

Figure 2-1 outlines this study's research process, which contains the following five phases: getting started, research design, data generation, data analysis and theory formulation. It further highlights the method applied and resultant output per phase. The researcher was inspired by the work of Eisenhardt (1989) and Handfield and Melnyk (1998) in adopting this research process.

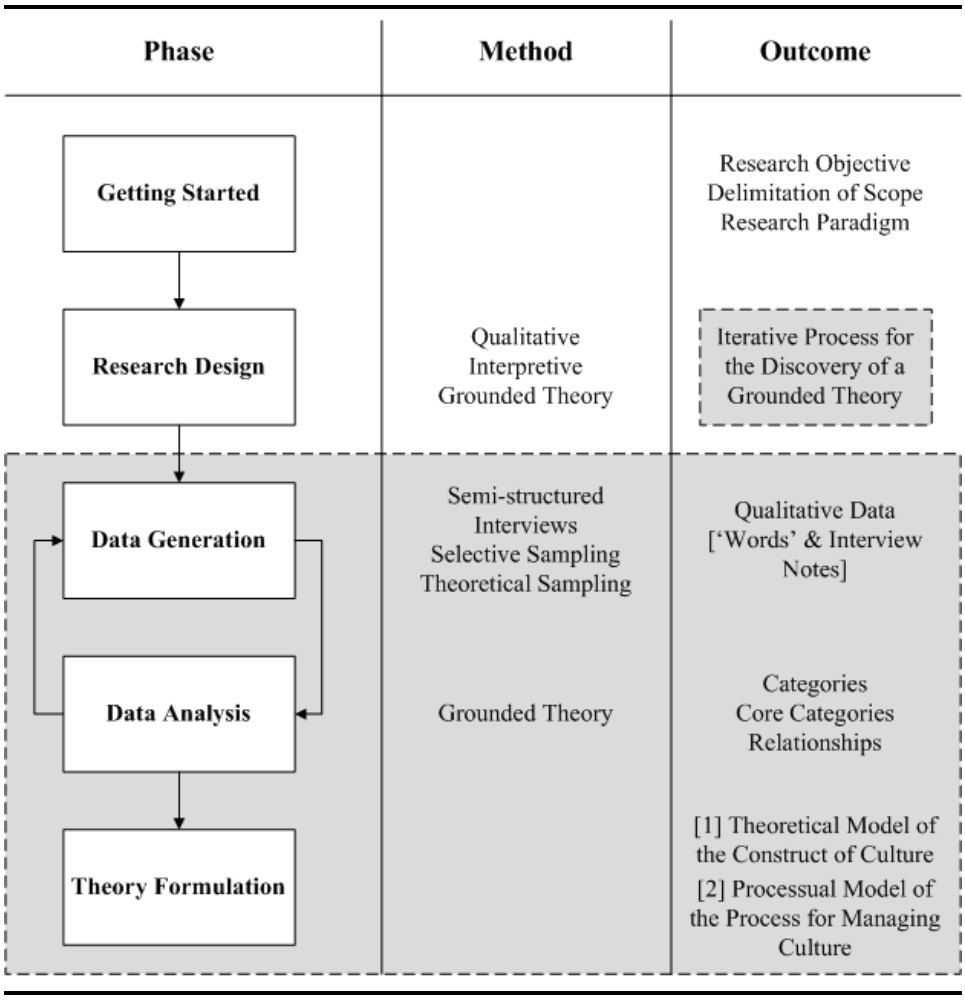

Figure 2-1: Process for Discovering Theory

The execution of the process for discovering theory, detailed in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 led to the theoretical model of the construct of culture [1] and processual model of the process for managing culture [2]. These are detailed in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7 respectively while Chapter 8 discusses their implications and points to future directions.

The rationale for adopting a qualitative and interpretive paradigm is developed in this chapter and the phases are described in the following sections.

Getting Started: In Chapter 1, the initial phase of this study triggered by the 'abstract wonderment' raised in two questions: What constitutes the construct of culture in GBTPs? and How to deal with culture in GBTPs? In this phase, 'Getting Started' one seeks to answer questions such as:

- What is going on here?

- Is there anything interesting enough to study?
- What am I going to research?
- What are the key issues?
- What is happening?
- What is the nature of this study?

The first phase hence was to determine the study's context, scope and objectives in order to narrow the focus as the research proceeds. It outlined the research paradigm, including the nature of this study as well as the position the researcher takes.

Research Design: The second phase of the research process [described in this Chapter] is to determine how to address the 'abstract wonderment' by following a research strategy. This includes the selection of the most appropriate research approach and mode for data generation as well as detailing their procedures. Questions to be answered in this phase include:

- What kind of data is required to derive authentic results?
- What is the most appropriate strategy to generate data?
- Is the data required for this study available and accessible?
- What is the most appropriate research approach to analyse the data generated?
- How to analyse the generated data?

Data Generation: The third phase of actual data generation is detailed in Chapter 3 and is closely interrelated with phase four [data analysis] as they run parallel with each other and are integrated through the application of the grounded theory research method. The purpose of this third phase is to generate qualitative data by sampling appropriate interviewees and conducting interviews resulting in qualitative data in the form of words, transcribed verbatim from interview recordings and from interview notes.

Data Analysis: Phase four of this study is to operationalise the adopted 'Glaserian' grounded theory approach by addressing the following questions:

- What are the key concepts, categories?
- What are the patterns or relationships between the concepts?

The importance of this phase, elaborated in Chapter 4, is to explain the data analysis process as well as to introduce the elements of grounded theory.

Theory Formulation: Phase five, the final phase, is to explain, integrate and present the discovered theoretical constructs, saturated concepts, categories and the relationships between them. The researcher asks questions such as: Does the discovered theory make sense? This phase resulted in the formulation of two theoretical models, the 'Theoretical Model of the Construct of Culture' and the 'Processual Model of the Process for Managing Culture'. These are discussed in Chapter 6 and 7 respectively.

However, the sequential view of the research process shown in Figure 2-1 does not reflect the true nature of this study. In practice the 'Iterative Process for Discovering Theory' is far from linear or sequential and requires the researcher to go back and forth, take loops around processes and boundaries (Eisenhardt, 1989), involving trails of conjectures and refutations (Campbell, 1974) (Handfield & Melnyk, 1998). Particularly in grounded theory the phases of data generation and data analysis are not clearly delineated and overlap each other (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Figure 2-2 below, shows the actual steps of the process for discovering theory.

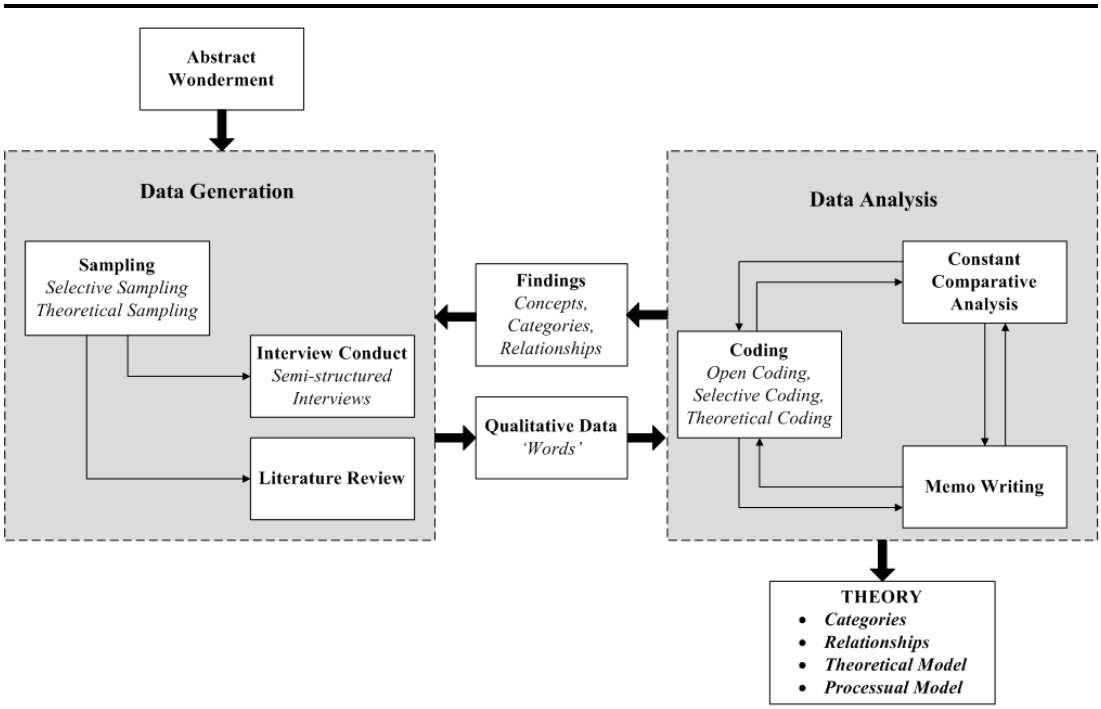

Figure 2-2: Iterative Process for the Discovery of Grounded Theory

The operationalisation of the research process to discover theory may *"requires hard work and ingenuity"* (Dubin, 1976, p. 26) as well as patience since theory does not emerge early in the process of theorising (Weick, 1995). Also, the application of the presented process to discover theory does not always guarantee a new theory, but the process is still an interesting and significant theoretical contribution (Eisenhardt, 1989).

The remainder of this chapter introduces this study's research paradigm followed by its research approach.

2.2 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm is *"a constellation of shared convictions that facilitate the development of an intellectual movement into an institutionalized part of a mainstream a 'normal' scientific inquiry."* (Kuhn, 1970 in Martin, 1992, p. 15). It defines for the researcher what they are and what falls within the limits of legitimate research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Thus the fundamental questions to be answered by

the researcher prior to embarking the generation of knowledge are: What is the nature of this research and how is the social world constituted in this domain?

The following two sub-sections first address the qualitative nature of this study and then elaborate on the interpretive position adopted.

2.2.1 The Nature of Research

> *Not everything that can be counted counts, and not everything that counts can be counted*
>
> -- Albert Einstein

Research can be either qualitative [use of words] or quantitative [use of numbers] (Miles & Hubermann, 1994, p. 1), but both qualitative and the quantitative researchers believe they have an insight into society that is worth disseminating to others, and use a variety of forms, media and means to communicate their ideas and findings (Becker, 1986). Quantitative research hopes to measure a phenomenon while qualitative research seeks to explain it. Nevertheless, both are similar operations in that both are an attempt at translating the phenomenon for communicating it. The concepts, when being explained, are turned into words, and when they are measured, they are turned into numbers (Kubler, 1962).

This study follows the qualitative research tradition, which is broadly used for building theory in areas where literature and theories are scarce (Eisenhardt, 1989; Sutton & Staw, 1995). Qualitative research is explorative, fluid, flexible, data driven and context sensitive (Mason, 2002). In comparison to quantitative research, the qualitative work is *"more likely to lead to serendipitous findings and to new integrations; they help researchers get beyond initial conceptions to generate or revise conceptual frameworks"* (Miles & Hubermann, 1994, p. 1). Findings of qualitative research emerge in the form of themes, patterns, concepts that provide insight and understanding (Patton, 2002) as well as descriptions, interpretations, verifications and evaluations (Peshkin, 1993). These often refer to someone's lived experiences, behaviours, emotions, feelings, or organisational functions, social movements, cultural phenomena, and interactions between nations (Strauss &

Corbin, 1998), all grounded in rich descriptions and explanations (Miles & Hubermann, 1994).

The primary focus of this study is to discover theory on: What constitutes the construct of culture in GBTPs? and How to deal with culture in GBTPs? The qualitative nature of research was seen as most appropriate for reasons described below:

First, qualitative research allows the researcher to explore, describe and finally understand the meaning of social actions by answering the 'why' and 'how' questions (Walsham, 1995; Yin, 2003). According to Gephart (2004) it produces a description and understanding of the actual human interactions, meanings, and processes that constitute real-life organizational settings.

Second, qualitative research focuses on phenomena occurring in a natural environment, or the real world and studies them in all their complexity (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005) and detail (Patton, 2002). Descriptions and explanations are thereby grounded in the context of their emergence (Miles & Hubermann, 1994), which instils 'un-deniability' of the findings (Glaser, 1978).

Third, qualitative research allows for flexibility and hence accommodates further definition and refining of the study while discovering patterns, developing theories or descriptions for a better understanding of the subject under investigation.

Fourth, qualitative data allows the researcher to bring the voice of participants in the study (Creswell, 1998), which caters for a better understanding of the context, defines the study's boundaries and support resulting theory.

Fifth and finally, qualitative methodology well suited to studying complex phenomena such as culture as it allows finding explanations *"in the field"* (Szabo, 2007, p. 58) discovering theoretical concepts not covered by literature yet. Szabo further adds, *"qualitative methodology is most commonly known as most prominent method for studying culture"* (Szabo, 2007, p. 58) as it is to generate insights rather than to test these.

2.2.2 Philosophical Position

All research is subject to either explicit or implicit philosophical assumptions regarding the social world's nature and the way of investigation, and articulates the *"constellation of beliefs, values and techniques"* [that] *"circumscribe definitions of 'worthwhile problems' and 'acceptable scientific evidence'"* (Chua, 1986, p. 602). The philosophical position refers to the researchers' approach to the examination of the phenomenon [ontology] and methods for understanding it [epistemology] (Van de Ven, 2007). The underlying philosophical assumptions in qualitative research can be either positivist, interpretive, or critical philosophy (Orlikowski & Robey, 1991) (Neuman, 1997) (Klein & Myers, 1999).

The underlying philosophical position in this study is interpretive. First, interpretive research has the objective to understand a phenomenon through meanings assigned by members of a social group, through studying them from the perspective of the participant and its natural context (Orlikowski & Robey, 1991; Walsham, 1993; Wynekoop & Russo, 1997). The world from an interpretive perspective is conceived as *"an emergent social process as an extension of human consciousness and subjective experience"* (Burrell & Morgan, 1979, p. 253). It is to understand explain why people act the way they do (Gibbons, 1987).

Second, the interpretive position provides insight to "*the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it*" (Schwandt, 1994, p. 118). It attempts to learn how daily life is experienced by the interviewees as well as about what is meaningful or relevant to them (Neuman, 1997). In this study, the interpretive position allowed exploration of the interviewee's lived experience of working on GBTPs,

Third, data generated through interviews are actually the interviewees' subjective interpretations of their experiences. According to Geertz *"what we* [researchers] *call our data are really our own constructions of other people's constructions of what they and their compatriots are up to"* (Geertz, 1973, p. 9). In addition, the researchers own subjectivity to interpret the generated data is key to such a study, with findings being backed with quality arguments instead of statistical exactness and confidence (Garcia & Quek, 1997). Thus, the researcher is not independent from the researched (Creswell, 1998). Moreover she or he plays a vital role in generating and analysing the data, including the selection of interviewees,

leading the interview conversations or making sense of the data. In the interaction between the researcher and the researched, the interviewer attempts to understand phenomena by the meaning participants assign to them (Orlikowski & Baroudi, 1991).

Fourth, interpretive research adopts a practical, rather than instrumental orientation aiming to understand social life by discovering the construct of meaning in a natural setting (Neuman, 1997). *"The world of lived reality and situation-specific meanings that constitute the general object of investigation is thought to be constructed by social actors"* (Schwandt, 1994, p. 118). Thus reality is perceived as the composite of multiple, subjective views (Orlikowski & Baroudi, 1991; Gephart, 2004). In this study the nature of reality is locally constituted in the form of the senior management practitioners' lived experiences of working on GBTPs. The 'meaning' of those lived experiences is constructed by the interpretation of those who live it (Gephart, 2004); in this case, that of the senior management practitioners. Recent examples of cultural research on topics such as cross-cultural leadership (Deng & Gibson, 2009), distributed information systems development team (Sarker & Sarker, 2009) or on IT user culture (Walsh, et al., 2010) substantiate that position.

In summary, the interpretive position is well suited for studying culture as a social issue (Walsham, 1995) with its intertwined structure and complex construct in the context of GBTPs.

2.3 Research Operationalisation adopting Grounded Theory

Research is operationalised by applying techniques of appropriate research approaches. *"Research methods shape the language we use to describe the world, and language shapes how we think about the world"* (Benbasat & Weber, 1996, p. 392). The selection of the most appropriate research approach must be driven by the research question, the current body of knowledge in the area researched (Wynekoop & Russo, 1997), the research context, and its founding needs and objectives (Trauth, 2001), rather than deriving it from philosophy [how we think about it] or methodology [how we study it] (Hammersley, 1999). Another aspect not to be

underestimated is the researcher's access to quality data, which is often neglected when engaging into a research.

In this study, grounded theory was chosen over other qualitative research approaches such as case study, ethnography or phenomenology as the prime objective of this research was to discover theory. Grounded theory is an approach for data generation and analysis developed by Glaser and Strauss (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) that aims to discover theory that is grounded in a social setting as stated in the title of their seminal work[7] (Hughes & Howcroft, 2000) and not coloured by pre-existing scholarship. It is an *"inductive, theory discovery methodology that allows the researcher to develop theoretical account of the general features of a topic while simultaneously grounding the account in empirical observation data"* (Martin & Turner, 1986, p. 141). Grounded theory studies may result in a substantive conceptual theory of both constructs and relationships *"abstract of time, place and people"* (Glaser & Holton, 2004, p. 9) with implications of a general nature based on a set of conceptual hypotheses that have been systematically generated and integrated.

The following sub-sections detail and defend the grounded theory approach taken in this study.

2.3.1 Approaches to Grounded Theory

Since the seminal work by Glaser and Strauss (1967), various researchers have articulated different interpretations and applications of grounded theory. A schism occurred between the two inventors resulting in the more mechanical 'Straussian' approach that aims for a full description of situations, detailed procedures and techniques for data analysis (Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998). This is in contrast to the 'Glaserian' approach of abstract conceptualization (Stern, 1994), allowing a higher degree of flexibility compared to the 'Straussian' approach, forcing preconceptions of full descriptions (Glaser, 1992). Urquhart (2001) highlighted this point when she said that the Glaserian approach allows for the data to speak to us and

[7] Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*. New York, US: Aldine Publishing Company. 41976 citation as of 25 February 2012

for coding from the ground up whereas the Straussian approach imposes preconceived categories, which is a top down method of coding. A further distinct variant of grounded theory is the constructivist interpretation by Charmaz (2000). This is known as the ‘Charmazian’ variant of grounded theory emphasising the studied phenomenon rather than the method applied (Charmaz, 2001).

In addition, the application of grounded theory in practice can either be a research approach to conduct research or a technique for data analysis, also referred as the Grounded Theory Method [GTM] (Urquhart, 2001). Matavire and Brown (2011) distinguish four ways of how grounded theory is approached: the 'classic' or 'Glaserian' grounded theory following the original work of Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Glaser (1998), the 'evolved' or 'Straussian' grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998), the 'analytical' which follows the grounded theory guidelines provided by researchers such as Hughes and Jones (2003) for data analysis and the 'mix-method' approach including case study (Eisenhardt, 1989) or action research (Baskerville & Pries-Heje, 1999).

This study follows the ‘classic’ or ‘Glaserian’ school of thought whereby grounded theory is understood as a research approach not just as a coding technique (Urquhart, Lehmann, & Myers, 2010, p. 358). Further, ‘Glaserian’ grounded theory is not buried by procedural rules and emphasises induction and emergence (Heath & Cowley, 2004). It also seems to be more applicable to industry experts in the field by providing them with insights from as yet unknown perspective (Fernandez, 2003, p. 47). Above all, it is expected to allow the discovery of theory.

2.3.2 The Argument for Grounded Theory

The following section argues the selection of the 'Glaserian' grounded theory approach for this study: First, the central objective of grounded theory is to discover theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Urquhart, et al., 2010), or a *“theory about ...”* (Morse & Richards, 2002, p. 26) that is grounded in empirical data in line with the objective of this study. Grounded theory has the explicit focus to generate theory (Urquhart, et al., 2010), in contrast to qualitative data analysis, the goal being the description (Glaser & Holton, 2004). Existing research heavily relies on predefined

cultural archetypes, mostly on the level of national culture (Myers & Tan, 2002) (Ali, Brooks, & AlShawi, 2008); on comparing cultures upon differences (Ives & Jarvenpaa, 1991; Tractinsky & Jarvenpaa, 1995; Myers & Tan, 2002; Niederman, et al., 2012); seeing culture as single level (Karahanna, Evaristo, & Srite, 2005) and static construct (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006; Pang, et al., 2010); and is conceptual rather than empirically grounded (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006). The key difference in comparing this study to previous studies is that grounded theory allows us to takes a holistic perspective on culture, sees culture as dynamic construct and is empirically grounded.

Second, grounded theory is regarded as *"a flexible research method that is good for researching processes, and for building theory in unexplored areas"* (Urquhart & Fernandez, 2006, p. 462). Both the construct of culture in GBTPs as well as how to deal with culture from the perspective of senior management practitioners is not yet addressed in research despite culture itself being widely researched. Thus the inductive, explorative approach of grounded theory (Martin & Turner, 1986; Orlikowski, 1993) appeared most appropriate to this study.

Third, grounded theory provides a set of clear guidelines for both the systematic conduct of the research as well as the interpretation of results (Charmaz, 2001; Fendt & Sachs, 2008; Myers, 2009). These facilitate the research process and cater for rigorous theory development (Glaser, 1978; Fernandez, Lehmann, & Underwod, 2002). One example is the analytical technique of theoretical sampling, which allows the unimpaired interplay of theoretical and empirical data (Gibson, Gregory, & Robinson, 2005; Myers, 2009). However grounded theory is to be seen as a practical handbook of procedures rather than a cookbook for data analysis. The application of these procedures, analytical techniques and guidelines are detailed in Chapter 4, 'Grounded Theory Data Analysis'.

Fourth, grounded theory is particularly well suited to investigate phenomena of deeper cultural aspects (Pearse & Kanyangale, 2009) of organisational and human contexts (Van de Ven & Poole, 1988, 1989; Orlikowski, 1993; Fernandez, 2003) as well as and cultural issues (Szabo, 2007).

Fifth, grounded theory allows discovery of an abstract analytical schema of a phenomena and leads to a theory that is closely related to that phenomenon studied (Creswell, 1998). Its application in this research strives to understand the processes of how the actors [senior management practitioners in this study] interpret reality and

construct meaning (Suddaby, 2006) by being attentive to subjective experiences. Also it is attentive to the research context [GBTPs in this study] since its complexities and particularities are part of understanding the phenomena under investigation (Martin & Turner, 1986; Orlikowski, 1993). Grounded theory enables both rigor and relevance by providing testable theories tightly connected with empirical realities, which work in the context from which they emerge and are readily adaptable (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Fernandez, et al., 2002; Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). In essence, grounded theory *"tries to understand the action in a substantive area from the point of view the actors involved"* (Glaser, 1998, p. 115).

Six, grounded theory has the capacity to provide practitioners with useful insights which were not empirically known before (Glaser, 1978; Martin & Turner, 1986; Fernandez, et al., 2002). *"The goal of grounded theory is to generate a theory that accounts for a pattern of behaviour which is relevant and problematic for those involved"* (Glaser, 1978, p. 93). Derived findings of grounded theory studies contribute to a better understanding of their own and the interviewees' situation. This is one reason why Grounded Theory is commonly seen as appropriate for management studies (Fendt & Sachs, 2008).

Seventh, grounded theory relies on empirical data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1998; Sarker, Lau, & Sahay, 2001; Urquhart, 2001). In other words, theory is implicit in the data and needs to be discovered (Fendt & Sachs, 2008) in a natural uncontaminated setting or the empirical world (Wakeford, 1969). This notion matched the study's extensive access to data sources, of significant individuals with extensive experience and knowledge in the substantive area of investigation [for more on sampling see Chapter 3, 'Data Generation' and Chapter 5, 'Research Scene', and grounded theory allowed the research to take advantage of and back up the discovered theory with empirical evidence (Myers, 2009). According to Eisenhardt, *"the theory-building process is so intimately tied with evidence that it is very likely that the resultant theory will be consistent with empirical observation"* (1989, p. 547).

Eight and lastly the researcher's experience in the field of investigation is seen as beneficial to grounded theory studies as the researcher is more sensitive to the area of investigation and more effective in gathering information from the participants (Glaser, 1998; Urquhart, 2001). According to Glaser, *"professional experience, personal experience, and in depth knowledge of the data in the area under study*

truly help in the substantive sensitivity necessary to generate categories and properties, provided the researcher has conceptual ability." (Glaser, 1992, p. 28). The substantial professional experience of this researcher in the field of investigation was thus an invaluable benefit since the researcher understood the field of investigation and the interviewees from the researcher's own work in this substantive area. This argument is more fully developed in Chapter 4, section 'The Role of the Researcher during the Data Analysis'.

In summary, grounded theory suits the underlying interpretive position, is aligned with the research objective to discover theory, and well suited to the research context and data available. Moreover it is well suited to explore cultural issues in all areas of international management (Szabo, 2007). Also, grounded theory appreciates the researchers' professional background in the substantive area of investigation as the resulting theory is expected to be relevant to practice. The procedure for operationalising the application of grounded theory for data analysis is detailed in Chapter 4.

2.4 Theory: An Elaboration

> *Theories become instruments, not answers to enigmas, in which we can rest. We don't lie back upon them, we move forward, and, on occasion, make nature over again by their aid.*
>
> -- William James (1907, p. 46)

> *Science is magic that works.*
>
> -- Kurt Vonnegut [Cat's Cradle]

Theory provides an explanation to science. In social science explanations are observed regularities based on the underlying beliefs of the researcher developed incrementally and based on both empirical data and existing bodies of knowledge. Thus theory can be understood as a explanation of magic that works. It aims *"to describe, explain, and enhance understanding of the world and, in some cases, to*

provide predictions of what will happen in the future and to give a basis intervention and action" (Gregor, 2006, p. 616). In short, theory is developed to answer the questions of how, when and why (Whetten, 1989).

The following sub-sections elaborate the following: what theory is not, levels of theory, theoretical contribution, and assessment of theory.

2.4.1 What Theory is not

Good[8] theory is to be interesting (Davis, 1971) and explains, predicts and enlightens (Weick, 1995), while, at the same time, useful for scholars and practitioners alike (Gummesson, 2002). A good theory is defined as *"a plausible theory, and a theory is judged to be more plausible and of higher quality if it is interesting rather than obvious, irrelevant or absurd, obvious in novel ways, a source of unexpected connections, high in narrative rationality, aesthetically pleasing, or correspondent with presumed realities."* (Weick, 1989, p. 517). William of Ockham, a fourteenth-century English philosopher, argued that the best theory is the one that makes no more assumptions than necessary, setting an objective of good theory to being most parsimonious and now known as Occam's Razor (Martin, 2002). In other words theory is to be *"rich enough to capture the fewest yet most important variables and interactions required to explain the events or outcomes of interest"* (Handfield & Melnyk, 1998, p. 336).

Detailing the opposite, that is, what theory is not, may allow us to better understand what theory is and what it stands for. Firstly, unconnected references are not theory (Weick, 1995). These would at least require some level of discussion (Sutton & Staw, 1995).

Second, data is not equal to theory; theory summarises the observed relations in the data (Weick, 1995). As Mintzberg (1979) asserts, that researchers only, not data, generate theory. Quotations might help to come closer to the theory but quotes

[8] Good is subjective and refers to something commonly understood as *"having the required qualities; of a high standard"* http://oxforddictionaries.com/view/entry/m_en_gb0342450#m_en_gb0342450 Last assessed 24 May 2011

as standalone are not the theory (Sutton & Staw, 1995). They require causal arguments explaining the why of the findings that have been observed.

Third, and in concordance with the first two points a list of variables is far from theory (Weick, 1995): variables need to be connected rather than being a loose assembly that is documented (Sutton & Staw, 1995). Relationships are the domain of theory, not lists (Whetten, 1989) or, in other words, *"Science is facts, just as houses are made of stone… But a pile of stones is not a house, and a collection of facts is not necessarily science"* (Poincare, 1902).

Fourth, diagrams or models by themselves do not represent a theory (Weick, 1995). Diagrams or models require a logical and coherent explanation (Sutton & Staw, 1995) that is consistent, before they can evolve into a theory.

Fifth, standalone hypotheses without answering the why do not qualify for a theory either (Sutton & Staw, 1995; Weick, 1995).

In summary, *"Theory is a statement of concepts and their interrelationships that shows how and/or why a phenomenon occurs"* (Gioia & Pitre, 1990).

2.4.2 Levels of Theory

The level of theory is determined by its completeness, comprehensiveness and generalisability. As theory progresses from one level to another it increases the capacity to change the way of thinking about the world while at the same time restrictions of its applicability decreases, hence its generalisability increases (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Figure 2-3 visualises the levels of theory from emerging theories to a grand theory with a pyramid encompassing the elements of emerging theories and sub-sets of mid-range theories.

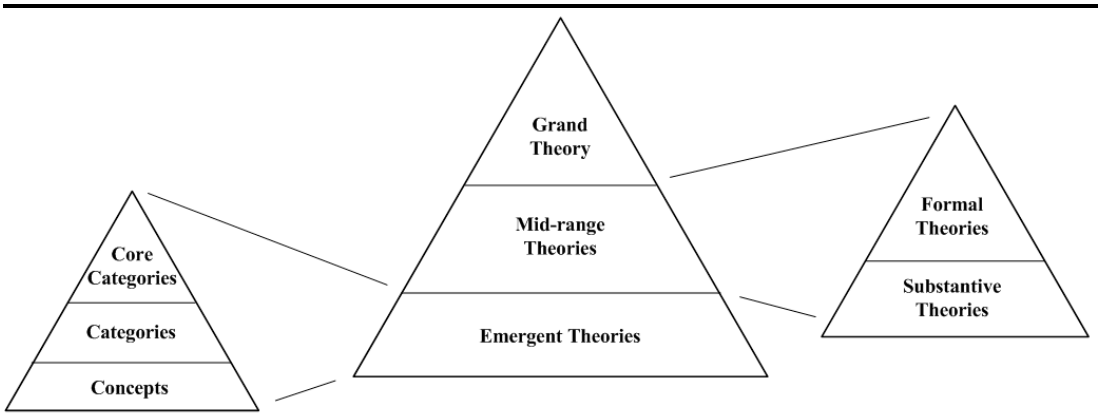

Figure 2-3: Pyramid of Theory Levels

Grand Theory: A grand theory is a generalisable theory unbound in time and space (Bacharach, 1989). It explains a universal phenomenon, and its elements and relationships in a consistent way by a scientific method. Grand theories may require multiple studies including theory building and theory testing studies (Eisenhardt, 1989). An example for a grand theory is the 'Structuration Theory' by Anthony Giddens (1984).

Mid-range Theories: Mid-range or middle range theories lie between the grand theory and emergent theories. *"Middle range theories are solutions to problems that contain a limited number of assumptions and considerable accuracy and detail in the problem specification"* (Weick, 1989, p. 521). They are situated between evolving working hypothesis and all-inclusive systematic and unified theories (Merton, 1968). Mid-range theories are often relevant for practice disciplines as well as being the foundation for building a grand theory (Bourgeois, 1979). Mid-range theories encompass substantive theories and formal theories, also referred to as descriptive and normative, and prescriptive theories are distinguished by their generalisability. In the language of grounded theory a substantive theory is *"a theory about a substantive area of inquiry"* (Glaser, 1992, p. 99), applicable to where it emerged from, relevant to the people that it is concerned about and also readily modifiable (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). A formal theory is *"a theory developed or discovered for a conceptual area of inquiry"* (Glaser, 1992, p. 99). In other words, it is a higher level of substantive theory. Formal theories constitute of substantive theories generated through comparative analysis of multiple substantive theories (Bourgeois, 1979). They explain 'what is' rather than what ought to be (Carlile & Christensen, 2005).

Emergent Theories: Emergent theories are made of the initial concepts, categories and core categories as well as their properties and relationships emerging that guide further collection and analysis of data (Glaser, 1992). The progression of theory and thus the resulting theory however relies on the kind of data generated and participants involved in the study (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Miles & Hubermann, 1994).

2.4.3 Theoretical Contribution

The theoretical contribution of empirical studies can be one or more of the following: to build theory, to test theory, to extend theory or refine theory (Handfield & Melnyk, 1998) as well as a combination of these. Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan (2007) classify the types of theoretical contribution as reporters, testers, qualifiers, builders and expanders, a 'strong' theoretical contribution being theory testing [testers], theory building [builders] or a combination of both [expanders]. Table 2-1 below defines them adapted from Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan (2007, pp. 1285-1286).

Type	Description
Builder	Either introduce new constructs, relationships, or processes or significantly reconceptualize existing ones. They are high in theory building and inductive.
Expander	Are relatively high in both theory building and testing. Similarly to 'Builders' they focus on constructs, relationships, or processes, but they conduct the examination while testing some existing theory. In short they expand a given literature by taking it in a new and different perspective.
Tester	Contain high level of theory testing but low level of theory building, predictions are grounded in existing models, diagrams, figures or theory.
Qualifier	Qualify established relationships or processes using conceptual relationships rooted in extant literature, thus contain moderate theory building and testing. They may introduce a new mediator or moderator of an existing relationship, process and ground predictions on existing conceptual arguments.
Reporter	Possess relatively low levels of both theory building and theory testing. They attempt to replicate or examine previously demonstrated effects and ground predictions with logical speculation or reference to past findings.

Table 2-1: Taxonomy of Theoretical Contributions

Figure 2-4 in the following visualises the taxonomy of theoretical contributions adapted from Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan (2007, pp. 1283, 1285-1286).

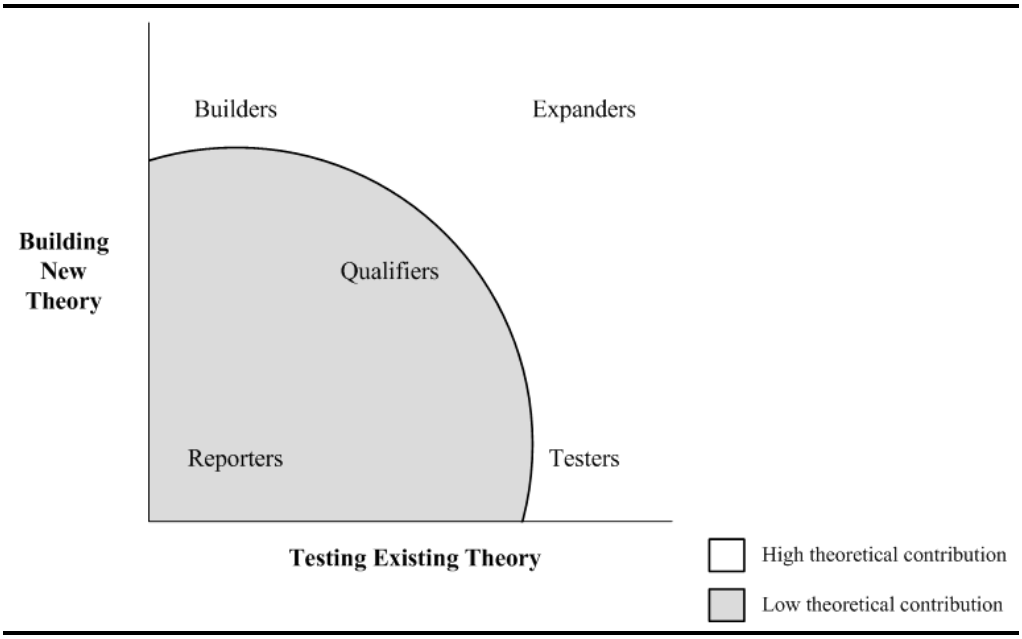

Figure 2-4: Taxonomy of Theoretical Contributions

Regardless of the research beliefs, objective, outlet and type, a theoretical contribution serves to advance professionalism and maturity, dissolves the tension between research and practice but also allows for the formation of methods to build theory (Lynham, 2000).

This description of the theoretical contribution will be applied to the theories developed through this research and used in Chapter 8.

2.4.4 Assessment of Theory

Theory is judged by its novel insights paired with abundance in accounts and grounding in empirical data (Eisenhardt, 1989), parsimony and scope (Glaser, 1992) as well as being interesting (Davis, 1971). *"Interesting theories are those which deny certain assumptions of their audience"* (Davis, 1971, p. 309), and be unexpected. In order to be interesting, a theory must is to be played against the previous assumptions of the phenomenon in question (Davison, 2005).

Irrespective of the type of the theoretical contribution, theory must address four basic elements, namely: Construct [what], relationships [why], scope [who, where, when], (Whetten, 1989; Wacker, 1998; Gregor, 2006) and explanation [why] (Whetten, 1989; Gregor, 2006). The fourth criteria [explanation of why] may include

conjectures that are predicted to hold but have not been quantitatively tested (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Predictive ability means explaining what might happen (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). This is in contrast to Gregor (2006) who argues that prediction is hand in hand with testing. Table 2-2 in the following depicts the criteria to judge a theoretical contribution adapted from Wacker (1998), Whetten (1989) and Gregor (2006).

Criteria	**Description**	**Question**
Construct	Defines all key constructs of a theory	What
Relationships	Describes the relationships between the key constructs of the theory	How
Scope	Boundaries to the constructs and their relationships which determine their generality	When, Where, Who
Explanation	Discussion of the model [constructs and relationships] beyond causality. Explanation provides the basis for judging reasonability of the theory	Why

Table 2-2: Criteria to Judge a Theoretical Contribution

The elements of theory as depicted above must be physically presented, with the means of presentation being words, tables and figures (Gregor, 2006). In Chapter 8 the section 'Goodness of Theory' applies these criteria to this study's results.

Two aspects are suggested that are specific to grounded theory studies, which is the degree of conceptualization and the scope of the theory (Urquhart, et al., 2010). The degree of conceptualisation relates to the process of discovering the theory, whereas the scope relates to the outcome of the process of discovering theory (Urquhart, et al., 2010). Table 2-3 summarizes the criteria for analysing grounded theory studies as suggested by Urquhart et al.(2010).

Criteria		Description
Degree of Conceptualisation	Description	Most basic conceptual construct
	Interpretation	Interpretation of categories and properties
	Theory	Inferential and,or predictive statements about the phenomena covering the whole area of investigation
Theory Scope	Bounded Context	Theory in the narrowest scope, bounded to the immediate context with little empirical base
	Substantive Focus	Substantive theory with predictive and explanatory power to a specific set of phenomena and significant empirical support
	Formal Concepts	A formal theoretical construct that applies to the conceptual area, which applies to many different kind of situations.

Table 2-3: Criteria for Analysing Grounded Theory Studies

The criteria ‘Degree of Conceptualisation’ progresses by constant comparison, iterative conceptualisation and theoretical sampling, while the ‘Theory Scope’ progresses by scaling up, and through theoretical integration (Urquhart, et al., 2010).

The discovered theory presented in Chapters 6 and 7 is revisited and evaluated in the concluding Chapter 8, section ‘Goodness of Theory' against these criteria.

2.5 Reflections on the Research Process to Discover Grounded Theory

This chapter first introduced this study's research process as 'The Process for Discovering Theory'. It then elaborated on the research paradigm, research operationalisation, and theory. An argument was made for this study to be qualitative interpretive research following the ‘Glaserian’ grounded theory approach after assessing the research setting, data available and the data accessibility as well as the overall research objective of this study which is to discover theory. The research process outlines five phases: Getting started, research design, data generation, data analysis and theory formulation by highlighting the research activities to be undertaken in the discovery of a grounded theory. This chapter concludes with an

elaboration on theory, what theory is, levels of theory, theoretical contribution and an assessment of theory. The following Chapter 3 elaborates on the ‘Data Generation’ before detailing the ‘Grounded Theory Data Analysis’ [Chapter 4].

Chapter 3: Data Generation

Alice: Would you tell me, please, which way I ought to go from here?
The Cat: That depends a good deal on where you want to get to.
Alice: I don't much care where.
The Cat: Then it doesn't matter much which way you go
Alice: ...so long as I get somewhere.
The Cat: Oh, you're sure to do that, if only you walk!

-- Lewis Carroll, Alice in Wonderland, 1865

Research, independent of its beliefs, relies on data. To the grounded theorist *"it is all data for the analysis. Whether soft or hard it is just grist for the mill of constant comparison and analysing"* (Glaser, 1992, p. 11), though there is a preference for qualitative data (Glaser & Holton, 2004). The process to acquire data is the data generation [construction of data] rather than data collection [excavation of data] (Mason, 2002).

Chapter 3 first introduces the interview method and then positions the interview as the primary strategy for data generation for this study; this strategy is labelled 'Interview Research'. Next it details the sampling procedures applied in this study. Thereafter the process of interviewing is framed in the dramaturgical model of qualitative interviewing and is elaborated in detail followed by specifics of interviewing individuals with different cultural backgrounds and the creation of interview notes. This chapter then concludes with a reflection on the adopted approach for data generation after discussing research ethics.

3.1 The Interview

Interviews are the most common and widely used mode for qualitative data generation (Walsham, 1995; Polkinghorne, 2005; Rubin & Rubin, 2005). An interview is *"the reciprocal influence of individuals upon one another's action when in one another's immediate physical presence"* (Goffmann, 1959, p. 26). It is a purposeful conversation (Kahn & Cannell, 1957) and a universal mode of systematic inquiry (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995) yielding a great deal of useful information (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Interviews are seen as the most powerful way to understand humans (Fontana & Frey, 2005) and gain access to information from the interviewees' perspective (Patton, 2002), who each have their own social history and individual world-view (Fontana & Frey, 2005).

Interviews gained popularity through multiple applications in clinical diagnosis, counselling and psychological testing during World War I (Maccoby & Maccoby, 1954). Interviewing has now become a routine technical practice and a ubiquitous method of research (Mishler, 1986) and a qualitative interview offers the best access to participant's interpretations of their lived experiences (Walsham, 1995). Interviews generate rich data (Schultze & Avital, 2011) on the subject of investigation including the highly contextualised individual judgments of the participants (Van Maanen, 1998). This helps to understand and explain the construct under investigation as it is *"intimately tied with empirical evidence"* (Eisenhardt, 1989, p. 546). The interviews in this study provide a systematic way of jointly constructing and generating data by the interviewee and the interviewer, similar to that outlined Gephart (2004). At the same time, it allowed the interviewer to utilise the invaluable knowledge and experience of senior management practitioners. The researchers' own subjectivity being an embedded part of interpretive research; this is in line with Walsham (1995).

The next section introduces and elaborates on 'Interview Research' as a strategy for data generation.

3.2 Interview Research as Strategy for Data Generation

Interview Research[9] in this study is understood as a strategy for data generation, where the interview is the core mode for data generation. Interview research is delineated from alternate strategies for data generation like case studies, surveys or experiments as it allows generation of in-depth data while at the same time covering a wide and diverse data sample. Also it is highly flexible and perfectly caters to the analytical technique of theoretical sampling, as it is not bound by organisational boundaries or reliance on a few significant individuals or just on independent accounts. Furthermore it is easy to use as interview research can be executed remotely, by telephone or videoconferencing. A constraint to interview research though, similar to other strategies for data generation, is to gain initial access to suitable interview partners: accessible, knowledgeable and able to provide rich descriptions of the phenomenon under investigation.

The key differentiator of interview research as strategy for data generation compared to other strategies is the combination of the depth of inquiry, discoverability and closeness to the context with the breath of inquiry. These facets are similar to case studies and ethnographic work and the extent of inquiry is similar to survey or experimental research. Figure 3-1 compares case study, ethnography, experiment, interview research and survey as strategy for data generation along the dimensions depth and breath of inquiry.

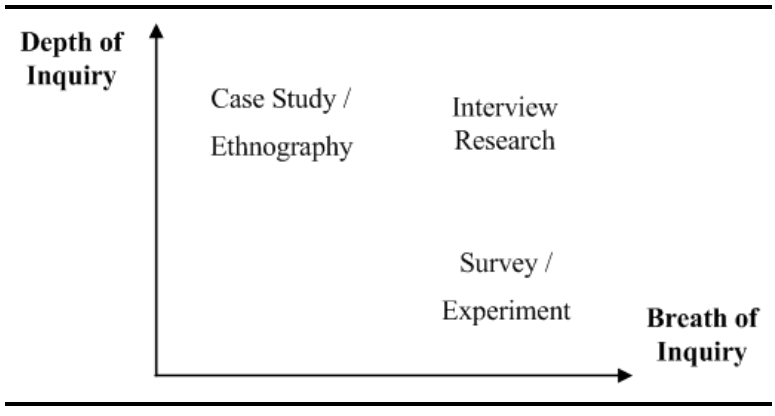

Figure 3-1: Strategies for Data Generation by Depth and Breath

[9] In the remainder of this study the terms ‘interview research’ and ‘interview’ are used exchangeable.

Depth of Inquiry: In interview research, "*the aim* [of the researcher] *is to get as close as possible to the world of managers and interpret this world and its problems from the inside* [..] *we* [the researcher] *wish to describe both unique and typical experiences and events as bases for theory that is developed and related to other studies"* (Dalton, 1959, pp. 1-2) which helps in the generation of rich data and allows for the subsequent emergent theory. This is similar to case studies, which often utilise interviews to capture real-life events and provide in-depth insights of a particular phenomenon (Eisenhardt, 1989; Creswell, 1998; Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). However, while case studies are novel, testable and empirically valid, *"they are essentially theories about specific phenomena"* (Eisenhardt, 1989, p. 547). Also they are limited to the cases included in the study, which is similar to ethnographic work where only the experienced environment provides insight to the studied phenomenon. Other strategies for data generation such as surveys and experiments, while allowing for a broad understanding of surface patterns (Mason, 2002) fall short of providing an in-depth understanding. However, d'Iribarne notes that an in-depth qualitative inquiry despite a smaller sample size *"leads to more certain and precise understanding of the societies under investigation"* (d'Iribarne, 1996, p. 30). Furthermore, Trauth (1999) states that her study on the influences and impact of culture in the Republic of Ireland can be seen as an in-depth case study on the level of an entire society.

Interview research as applied in study acquired the depth of inquiry from interviewees revealing their first-hand lived experiences related to a variety of GBTPs. This is in contrast to case study or ethnographic research led to in-depth insights from multiple accounts, GBTPs. Hence the applicability of the findings is thus not restricted to a specific setting, which is to increase the generalisability of the findings (Lee & Baskerville, 2003).

Breadth of Inquiry: Interviews allow for a breadth of inquiry since the selection of suitable interviewees is not limited to any organisational or project boundaries as in case study or ethnographic research. This allows the researcher to generate data from a broad base comparable with surveys or experiments whilst at the same time providing rich and thick descriptions.

In this study, interview research was able to generate data from multiple interviewees across cultures and countries independent of an organisational or project setting reporting on a variety of GBTPs. A total of thirty-two interviewees reported rich descriptions on more than sixty-one different GBTPs[10], of which multiple interviewees reported on nine GBTPs. Table 3-1 in the following is to provide an overview of the interview characteristics, interviewees and subjects interviewees reported, GBTPs.

General			
Period of Interview		February 2009 till January 2011	
Type of Interview		Semi-structured	
Interview Language		English	
Interviewees			32
		Current Region	*Cultural Background*
Africa		2	5
Asia		7	2
Australia		4	2
Europe		12	21
Middle East		2	0
North America		4	2
Latin America		1	0
Countries Interviewees lived in for longer than one year #36	Australia, Austria, Bosnia, Brazil, Canada, China, Columbia, Czech Republic, Dubai, Egypt, El Salvador, France, Germany, Indonesia, Japan, Kuwait, Malaysia, Netherlands, Nigeria, Philippines, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Thailand, UK, US, Venezuela, Zimbabwe		
Global Business Transformation Projects [Subjects]			61
Headquartered	Africa		6
	Asia		9
	Australia		5
	Europe		23
	Middle East		4
	North America		11
	Latin America		3
Industry Sectors GBTPs were situated #14	Automotive, Aviation, Chemicals, Conglomerate, Consumer Goods, Electronics, Engineering, Financial Services, Government, Oil & Gas, Pharmaceutical, Renewable Energies, Resources, Telecommunication, Transportation		

Table 3-1: Overview Interviewees & Global Business Transformation Projects

[10] An overview of the GBTPs reported on and the interviewees is provided in Chapter 5, Table 5-1 and Table 5-2. Some of these GBTPs are illustrated in the vignettes presented in Chapter 6 and 7. The concept of vignettes is detailed in Chapter 4, section 4.2.4 Vignettes.

This range of GBPTs coverage would be difficult to access, fund and resource using case study research and improbable to study using an embedded ethnographic research design. A case study research design would have required the researcher to visit all sites of a GBTP to assess one GBTP; this research relies on data from sixty-one GBTPs. An ethnographic research approach would have required one researcher per site part of one GBTP's geographical locations; most of the GBTPs reported on in this study had multiple core sites often in various geographically dispersed locations.

In contrast surveys and experiments, which both allow for such breath of inquiry focus on a selected set of aspects rather than taking a holistic perspective of culture in GBTPs. Also, quantitative data is unlikely to provide in-depth insights and rich descriptions of the senior management practitioners lived experiences. Moreover quantitative strategies collect, excavate data rather than generate data.

In short, the adopted interview research strategy allowed for a unique breath and depth of inquiry. Figure 3-2 below visualises the comparison of a case study or an ethnographic research design [left], which allows for a punctual in-depth inquiry of one GBTP with interview research [right], which combines the depth and breath of inquiry by interviewees from different cultures reporting on one or multiple GBTPs, including their sites.

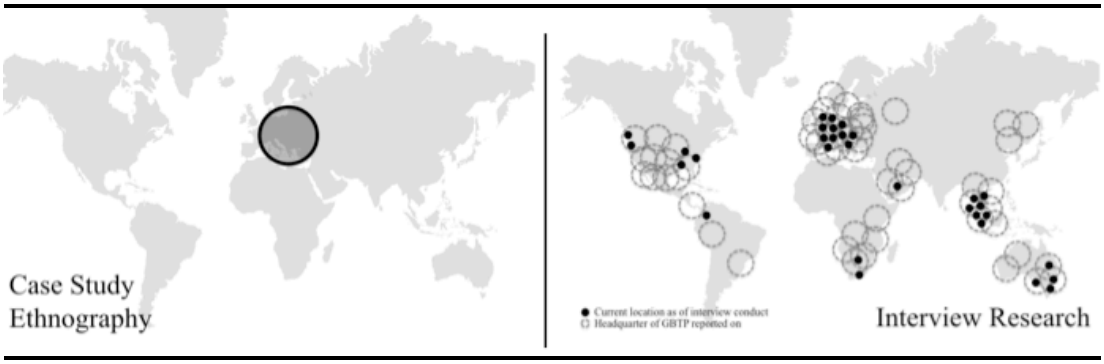

Figure 3-2: Comparison of Qualitative Data Generation Strategies

It is to be noted that each of the thirty-two interviewees participating in this study on its own reported on one or multiple GBTPs he or she was involved in and thought to be of relevance to this study.

One example which illustrates the breath of inquiry is interviewee [PSF-14][11], an executive partner of a professional service firm residing in South Africa whose reports included a GBPT headquartered in Africa with core project sites in Europe and South America [GBTP Consumer 8][12], a GBTP headquartered in Asia with core project sites in Australia, Europe, Africa, North and South America [GBTP Resources 1] and a GBPT entirely located within Africa [GBTP Telecommunication 1]. Figure 3-3 below illustrates the GBTPs and their locations reported on by interviewee [PSF-14] highlighting their geographical dispersion and breath of inquiry.

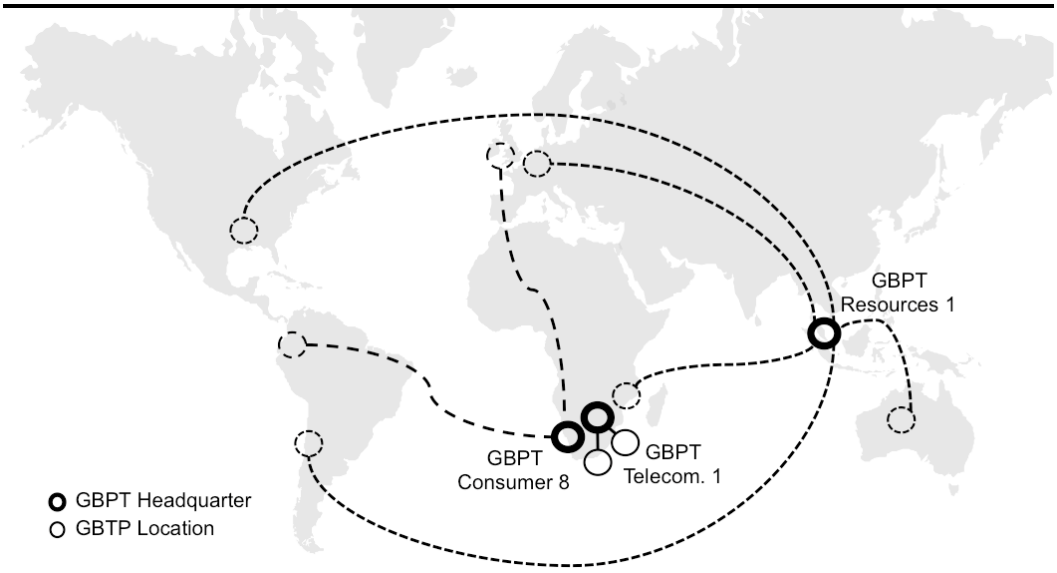

Figure 3-3: Coverage per Interviewee [PSF-14]

In comparison, investigating just one GBTP of the ones reported on by [PSF-14] with a case study or ethnographic research design would have translated to a significant higher effort in time and resources. An ethnographic inquiry would have required one researcher for an extended time in each location of [GBTP Resources 1], which would have translated to at least six researchers. A case study design would have required the researcher to travel around the GBTPs translating to a

[11] [PSF-14] is an unique identifier for an interviewee, 'PSF' indicates that the interviewee is working for an professional service firm and '11' stands for the sequential number of the interview. Further details of the interviewees participating in this study is provided in Chapter 5

[12] [GBTP Consumer 8] is a unique identifier for a GBTP reported on, 'Consumer' indicates the industry the GBTPs is situated in and '8' is sequential number of the GBTP in that industry.

significant budget. However with either solution only one GBTP could have been studied.

Examples in which multiple interviewees reported on the same GBTP include [GBTP Aviation 5] illustrated in Chapter 6 or [GBTP Resources 1] illustrated in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7. The later [GBTP Resources 1] includes the lived experience of both employees of the organisation undertaking the GBTP or as well as the external party engaged, professional services firm.

Further characteristics that distinguish interview research from other strategies for data generation are flexibility and the reliance on individuals. Interview research is highly flexible and responsive in the pursuit of generating data. It allows the researcher to focus, re-focus and adjust the scope of sampling, allowing the characteristics of the data sample to emerge over the course of the study as suggested by Burgelman (1983). Such ad-hoc refinements are often not feasible in case study research and not at all in surveys once the instrument is developed. This flexible approach in particular accommodates the iterative nature of grounded theory, where no sharp line can be drawn between the data generation and analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Also, interview research relies on accessing independent individuals and interviewees with substantive lived experience in the field of investigation. These were approached directly as individuals rather than through an organisation. This allowed ease of access and reduced administrative efforts. For example, consent was only required from the interviewee as an individual instead of from the organisation he/she is associated with. In addition interview research as applied in this study allowed the researcher to remain neutral during data generation and analysis, as there were no obligations such as formal reporting to any of the interviewees, nor was there a dependency relationship between the researcher and the interviewee such as being part of a research grant or as an employee of an organisation.

Overall the combination of depth and breadth of inquiry paired with the flexibility in data generation from significant individuals may allow access to insights from an as yet inaccessible perspective. More cases can be covered than in case study or ethnographic research. In addition, the key feature of interviews that is similar to other strategies for data generation is the requirement to access appropriate

data in the right quantity and quality. The interview research strategy facilitates easier access to more data sources through sampling more respondents or focusing on greater quality of responses by purposeful theoretical sampling.

A limitation to interview research, similar to other strategies gathering qualitative data, is the risk of data complexity. Responses of the interviewees to inquiries are personally interpretive, subjective, context and role sensitive, relatively unstructured and quite rich in their content as mentioned by Miles and Hubermann (1994). Also Interview Research might not be suitable to studies that aim to test a theory or hypotheses. Similarly if the objective is to study a single organisation or project, then other research strategies might be better suited.

The following section details the sampling strategies applied in this study, while the interview process framed in the dramaturgical model of qualitative interviewing suggested by Myers and Newman (2007) is elaborated in the subsequent section.

3.3 Sampling Strategy

The sampling strategy determines the selection of interviewees for data generation and is of utmost importance to derive meaningful and reliable results. It is expected to allow for a *"useful conceptual rendering of the data that explains the studied phenomena"* (Charmaz, 2000, p. 519). The identification of 'good informants' (Morse, 1991), who are 'experienced', first hand experience and are 'knowledgeable' in the area of investigation (Rubin & Rubin, 2005) is therefore essential.

To ensure the sampling of appropriate interviewees this study applied two sampling strategies: selective sampling and theoretical sampling. Figure 3-4 visualizes these.

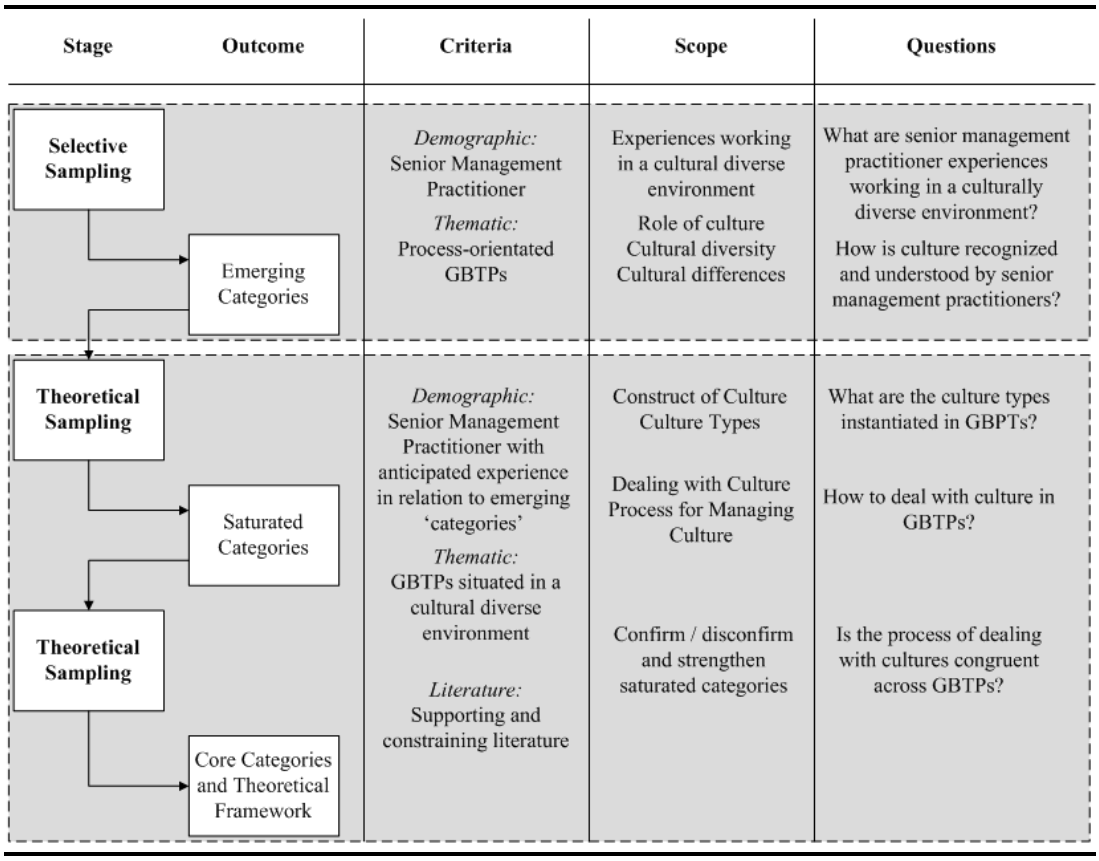

Figure 3-4: Overview Sampling Strategy

The purpose of selective sampling was to explore the substantive area under investigation in accordance with the preconceived sampling criteria (Sandelowski, Holditch-Davis, & Harris, 1992). The purpose of theoretical sampling was to selected interviewees for theoretical reasons (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The following section discusses both sampling strategies and their application in the project as well as elaborates on the sampling criteria for inclusion in the study.

3.3.1 Sampling Criteria

As grounded theory requires a sample of 'significant individuals' (Baker, Wuest, & Stern, 1992), particular care was taken to sample appropriate interviewees' who could provide rich insights based on their deep experience set. Interviewees in this study were senior management practitioners, reporting their lived experiences either from the perspective of working for an organisation initiating a GBTP or from the perspective of an external party such as a professional service firm being engaged in a GBTP. Potential interviewees had at least 5 years of professional experience and

were working in a culturally diverse environment. They were expected also to have held leadership position with responsibility for decision-making and personnel responsibility. The 5-year cut-off was set to identify the interviewees with more than 10,000 hours of professional practice, which is a benchmark for the minimum time to develop mastery (Levitin, 2006). Furthermore, interviewees had to have worked in at least three GBTPs.

The key sampling criteria however was the interviewees' lived experience, as they were expected to report on the GBTPs they were working on. The positions they held were secondary as these *"refer to instrumental functions within an organization, but there is more to culture than simply those activities that serve an instrumental function"* (Martin, 2002, p. 324). In addition, 'job titles' vary from country to country.

The formal sampling criteria set in place, as summarised in Table 3-2.

Criteria	**Measure**	**Reason**
Experienced and knowledgeable practitioners in the field of investigation	yes / no	*"Practitioners are more knowledgeable about, and more capable of, accurately describing the domain of their practice than are researchers"* (Dubin, 1976 p.33)
Professional experience	> 5years	Mastery (Levitin, 2006)
GBTPs worked on	> 3	Proof of lived experience in a cultural diverse environment
Leadership position	subjective	Proof of seniority and decision making power
Personal responsibility	yes / no	Proof of responsibility in dealing and managing people

Table 3-2: Formal Sampling Criteria Interviewees

It is to be noted that the thematic scope at the study's outset were GBTPs, which mostly included: business process management, process reengineering, process improvement, or process harmonization on a large scale. In many instances, these projects also involved an Enterprise Resource Planning [ERP] system implementation or upgrade. This project type was set to delineate this study's scope while exploring the field. In addition, this researcher had extensive experience and excellent contacts in these areas.

In respect to culture, the sampling was also to ensure a culturally diverse data set. To ensure this was achieved, the aim at the outset of this study was that each cultural cluster as defined by the GLOBE project[13] by House et al. (2004) was sampled as follows:

- Is represented by at least two interviewees cultural background
- That at least two interviewees lived in each cluster for longer then one year
- at least two GBTPs reported on were situated in each cluster

These cultural clusters were used to ensure the coverage of different national cultures. Also research in the culture space is suggested to draw from different cultures and sub-cultures (Straub, et al., 2002), which was achieved by this strategy. However, over the conduct of this research, the cultural clusters were refined to geographical regions as these appeared to be more recognisable by interviewees. Also to be noted that at no stage of this study was the object to compare and contrast responses by the cultural clusters; it was employed to ensure a comprehensive data sample.

In addition a variety of perspectives was taken, with samples working for organization engaged in GBTPs as well professional service firms temporarily involved in such a project. Again, this sampling was designed to ensure that the interviewees included different perspectives and thus provided a more comprehensive view, rather than sampled to distinguish and contrast these different states [within organisation versus from outside the organisation]. A detailed overview of this study's data sample is provided in Chapter 5.

3.3.2 Selective Sampling

To select is defined as *"to choose something or someone by thinking carefully about which is the best, most suitable etc."*[14] Selective sampling is *"shaped by the time the researcher has available to him, by his framework, by his starting and*

[13] The GLOBE project identified 10 cultural clusters aggregated in two meta-clusters; the meta-Western region containing Nordic, Germanic, Latin European, Anglo and Latin American cluster and the meta-Eastern region consists of the Eastern Europe, Confucian, Southern Asia, Arab Cultures, and Sub-Sahara African clusters House, R. J., Hanges, P., Javidan, M., Dorfmann, P. W., & Gupta, V. (2004). *Leadership, Culture, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

[14] Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English http://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/select_1 Last assessed 25 May 2012

developing interests, and by any restrictions placed upon his observations by his hosts" (Schatzman & Strauss, 1973, p. 39). In this study selective sampling was applied in the initial stage, and the selection criteria ensured that interviewees were knowledgeable in the substantive area of investigation in order to gain a maximum of insights and uncover categories. Sampling is directed by the 'abstract wonderment', and *"not on a preconceived theoretical framework"* (Glaser, 1978, p. 45)

Potential interviewees were identified by scanning through the extensive professional network of the researcher and his supervisory team at the study's outset. Sampling criteria were then were operationalised in two stages. Initially potential interviewees were scanned for their appropriateness prior to contacting them. To manage and keep track of potential interviewees the researcher maintained a database capturing information of their professional background including organisations they worked for, projects they were involved in, what information expected to be gained from the interview as well as other information that might be of relevance such as publications. It is to be noted that the decision to approach and interview a potential interviewee was at the discretion of the researcher. The key principle applied was to sample quality interviewees' who could provide deeper insights instead of 'simply' find accessible data that fit in with appropriate temporal conditions governing the data capture phase.

Next, after the interviews were conducted, and during the first round of data analysis [open coding], answers to questions about expertise and experience were assessed. If any criteria were not met and questions were not answered or did not help solve the abstract wonderment, then the interview was excluded from the data analysis and thus not reported in this study. This applied in two instances where interviewees reporting did not meet the criteria. One example was a director of a professional service firm, and it became apparent after they shared their experience, that these almost exclusively related to technical rather than social aspects such as differences between process modeling suites and operational rather than managerial aspects. In addition it became apparent that she, despite initially stating her experience in global projects, either did not have or did not disclose these experiences. In summary, the selective sampling allowed exploration of the area of investigation and provided the baseline for early data analysis and the theoretical sampling detailed in the following.

3.3.3 Theoretical Sampling

"Theoretical sampling is the process of data collection [generation] *for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes, and analyses his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them in order to develop his theory as it emerges"* (Glaser, 1978, p. 36). It is an analytical technique that responds to discovered themes that allows the researcher to adapt and re-scope the data generation continuously until theoretical saturation is reached. In other words, theoretical sampling is the ongoing process of data generation whereby the researcher looks for specific data, for specific purposes from the accessible pool of data sources. Interviewees in turn were sampled for their theoretical relevance to the emerging theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Goulding, 2002) as *"a function of theoretical completeness"* (Baker, et al., 1992, p. 1358) and to further develop and understand the discovered categories. As a consequence the focus of data generation shifted from the abstract wonderment to the emergent findings in order to examine and further develop and validate the discovered categories and their relationships (Goulding, 2002). In short theoretical sampling was conducted in order to obtain new data for theoretical reasons in order to further develop concepts, categories, their properties and relationships.

To determine the theoretical sample and adjust initial sampling criteria Glaser (1967) suggests questions like: what kinds of individuals are next in the data generation? What is their theoretical relevance, purpose? Furthermore, given the limited number of individuals which can be studied in qualitative studies it was suggested by Pettigrew (1990) that selecting extreme situations or polar types may further advance theory by replicating or extending the emergent theory. This is to allow for a more nuanced approach to build theory (Eisenhardt, 1989; Orlikowski, 1993; Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997).

In regard to the interviewees' professional experience the criteria were unaltered, though most of the interviewees at a later stage of the research process were more senior, having more professional experience and holding higher ranked positions. In respect to the cultural background of interviewees and the country where the interviewees currently worked in as well as the GBTPs they reported on, the theoretical sampling aimed to ensure a balanced and culturally diverse sample.

Interviewees were asked to report their lived experiences, and the thematic scope was broadened to GBTPs as a whole and not limited to just process orientated initiatives. This was because the core of this study crystallised around the construct of culture and how to deal with wherein the thematic context of process orientation did not emerge as core factor. Also it was expected that the GBTPs reported on were large scale and situated in a culturally diverse environment[15]. Similar to the selective sampling, interviewees who were believed by the researcher to have the *"greatest theoretical relevance and purpose"* (Glaser, 1978, p. 42) were approached. The response rate was overwhelming and given the large pool of potential interviewees the researcher was able to 'cherry-pick' individuals who were considered appropriate for theoretical reasons. Theoretical sampling of individuals is also perfectly in line with this study's interview research as strategy, which was to draw on a wide and diverse sample of individuals. In addition, the theoretical sampling allowed the researcher to recognise and record emergent themes even while generating the data (Fernandez, 2003). Also the sample interview questions were revised to dig deeper into the lived experience of interviewees that were of theoretical relevance. More details are provided in the later sub-section 'Thematic Interview Structure'.

In this study that theoretical sampling as was direct by the first nine interviews conducted [selective sampling] to further explore the discovered themes. These included culture types instantiated in GBTPs, such as an industry culture, professional service firm culture and 'theme' culture but also emerging patterns of behaviour and actions related to how issues of culture were dealt with by senior management practitioners in the conduct of the GBTP. Over the course of the theoretical sampling twenty-three people were interviewed. Given the extensive pool of participants the theoretical sampling and data generation continued past saturation. This ensured a maximum variation and cultural diversity in the data by involving multiple interviewees who had lived and worked in in different continents, as well ensuring that the sample included interviewees who were born and raised in different continents to where they now lived. Similarly, interviewees were sought who could report on GBPTs situated in different regions as well as involving different regions.

[15] In contrast to the first stage of selective sampling, a 'highly cultural diverse environment' is understood as cases where at least three distinctly different cultures were actively involved. Distinct difference here refers to great cultural differences.

The last four interviewees of the theoretical sample for instance were specifically selected for their cultural background and the geographical distribution of the GBTPs on which they worked.

In respect to the overall process to discover theory, it is to be noted that while grounded theory suggests a continuum of data generation and analysis, practice it did not necessarily cater for that. Particularly in the stage of selective sampling the researcher was not always able to analyse each interview before conducting the next one. This was due to the overwhelming and unexpected success in recruiting interviewees. However as Glaser notes the *"discovery of grounded theory implicitly assumes that the analyst will be creative"* (Glaser, 1978, p. 20) which applies also to the entire process of conducting grounded theory. Hence the researcher took charge to generate data rather than to just parse it. Also it is to be emphasised that theoretical sampling is no insurance of the data source being relevant. Interviewees were selected based on the sampling criteria and their anticipated potential for answering the research question allowing for theory discovery insights. But it was only after the interview was conducted that it was known if expected insights were gained.

The next section explains and provides insights of how the interviews were conducted using the dramaturgical model for qualitative interviewing (Myers & Newman, 2007).

3.4 The Interview Process as a Dramaturgical Model

In this study the dramaturgical model for qualitative interviewing suggested by Myers and Newman (2007), which uses the theatre as a metaphor to explore social life frames the process of interviewing. It draws on the theory of face-to-face interaction (Goffmann, 1959) and emulates the social interactions that are performed on a stage by actors according to a script. The dramaturgical model provides not only the framing for the interview process, it also details its stages and thus allows for transparency and traceability of the data generation procedures. Table 3-3 provides an overview of the 'concepts' of the dramaturgical model adapted from Myers &

Newman (2007), while the following sub-sections briefly discuss each concept of in the context of this study.

Concept	Description
Drama	The interview is a drama with a stage, props, actors, an audience, a script, and a performance
Stage	A variety of organisational settings and social situations although in business settings the stage is normally an office. Various props might be used such as pens, notes, or a tape recorder
Actor	Both the interviewer and the interviewee can be seen as actors. The researcher has to play the part of an interested interviewer; the interviewee plays the part of a knowledgeable person in the organization
Audience	Both the interviewer and the interviewee can be seen as the audience. The researcher should listen intently while interviewing; the interviewee[s] should listen to the questions and answer them appropriately. The audience can also be seen more broadly as the readers of the research paper[s] produced
Script	The interviewer has a more or less partially developed script with questions to be put to the interviewee to guide the conversation. The interviewee normally has no script and has to improvise
Entry	Impression management is very important, particularly first impressions. It is important to dress up or dress down depending upon the situation
Exit	Leaving the stage, possibly preparing the way for the next performance [finding other actors - snowballing] or another performance at a later date [e.g. perhaps as part of a longitudinal study]
Performance	All of the above together produce a good or bad performance. The quality of the performance affects the quality of the disclosure which in turn affects the quality of the data

Table 3-3: The Qualitative Interview as a Drama

3.4.1 Drama

Drama, being the metaphor for the qualitative interview, represents the overall process of qualitative interviewing including the concepts: Stage; Actor; Audience; Script; Entry; Exit and Performance as well as props such as notepad and audio recorder. It is evaluated by its performance, the actual conduct of the interview [see concept ‘Performance’].

3.4.2 Stage

According to Myers and Newman *"the stage is the location where the interview takes place"* (2007, p. 31). Setting the stage includes sampling the interviewees as elaborated in the previous section titled 'Sampling Strategy' and preparing for conducting the interview. The mode of interview was dependent on the interviewee's location and preferences. The researcher preferred in-person interviews as they generally allowed for more time and better engagement with the interviewee (Pressey & Selassie, 2002). However given the characteristics of this study, with interviewees being physically placed across all continents and travel not being possible due to financial restrictions, in-person interviews were not always feasible.

Independent of whether the interview is conducted in-person or virtually [by telephone or video-conferencing], a quiet environment is essential to prevent interruptions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). For in-person interviews, any potential distractions such as co-workers who could listen into or watch the interview were strictly avoided as these could be beyond the interviewee's comfort zone and thus influence their responses. In the case of a video conference, attention was paid to the appropriate background and clothing similar to the in-person interview, while for telephone interviews a quiet environment was sufficient. For phone interviews good reception must be ensured, as is sufficient bandwidth for video-conferencing.

Another aspect of the interview mode is scheduling the 'Performance'; the actual interview required the researchers flexibility to adapt to the interviewee's schedule and availability. It is the self-imposed position of the researcher [actor] of being open, being flexible (Eisenhardt, 1989; Trauth, 1997; Yin, 2003) and adaptive (Yin, 2003) which leads to the emergence of the data. In other words being versatile and aware that *"there is always a best way to obtain the necessary information"* (Morse, 1994, p. 226). Examples of the researcher's flexibility and versatility included being ready to interview at short notice and being okay with schedule changes which in some instances led the researcher to have unfortunate interviewing times such as 4 am in the morning given the time differences.

In retrospect it is to be noted that video conferencing is a cost effective mode for generating data and unexpectedly established a very supportive personal atmosphere almost similar to in-person interviews. Though it did not allow for immediate follow-up social activities like having a coffee, lunch or dinner together

which often revealed the most interesting insights or allowed as in some instances a visit to their workplace and discussion with project colleagues.

3.4.3 Actor & Audience

The role of the actor as well as the audience is interchangeable between the interviewee and the interviewer throughout the interview. In other words actor and audience co-construct the meaning by their reciprocal exchange during the interview. The researcher takes the actor's role when asking questions or directing the conversation while the interviewee is the actor when reporting his lived experiences. Similarly, both take the role of the audience in turns. This means that the researcher *"should listen intently while interviewing"* (Myers & Newman, 2007, p. 14), and not interrupt the interviewee while he was responding. Waiting for a few seconds before asking the next question proved to be beneficial allowing the interviewee time to contemplate. At the same time the interviewee is required to carefully listen to the questions asked, allowing them to answer these in an appropriate manner. However, the interviews overall were guided by the researcher ensuring consistency across the interviews and preventing a drift in focus as advised by Hunter (2011).

3.4.4 Script

The concept of script refers to the interview protocol, which is to guide the interaction between the researcher and the interviewee. The interview in this study was semi-structured, and questions scripted beforehand[16] ensured that all areas intended to be were covered. Semi-structured interviews are not only seen as suitable for grounded theory research, they also cater for flexibility, support a free flow of information, and allow the researcher to clarify responses or ask unplanned questions. The interviewer thereby controls which sub-questions get asked and which are left out. Prior to the interview, no script or questions were provided to the interviewee other than a brief 'interview introduction'

[16] A copy of the interview guide can be found in Appendix A

Both the thematic interview structure and formulation of interview questions are elaborated in greater depth in the following section.

3.4.4.1 Thematic Interview Structure

To allow for the generation of knowledge rather than just of extracting data (Mason, 2002) special attention was paid to the thematic structure of the interview as qualitative interviews require *"a great deal of intellectual preparation"* (Mason, 2002, p. 68). The thematic structure of the interview was based on the thematic building blocks guiding the interview, rather than being chronology-oriented [past, present, future] (Patton, 2002). This thematic structure can be compared with an initial 'conceptual framework' (Eisenhardt, 1989; Miles & Hubermann, 1994) around the 'abstract wonderment' based on the researcher's experience, informed conversations, and a preliminary exploration of the literature. Thematic building blocks allow access to *"existing knowledge of theory in a particular subject domain without being trapped in the view that it represents final truth in that area"* (Walsham, 1995, p. 77).

Each thematic building block contained a set of pre-planned questions concerning the area of investigation (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). These were to uncover the substantive experience of senior management practitioners. Over the course of this study these thematic building blocks were revised and interview questions altered in accordance to the emerging theory. Figure 3-5 below visualises the thematic structure of this study, where the shading indicates the core focus of this study. Their sequence however depended on the evolution of the interview.

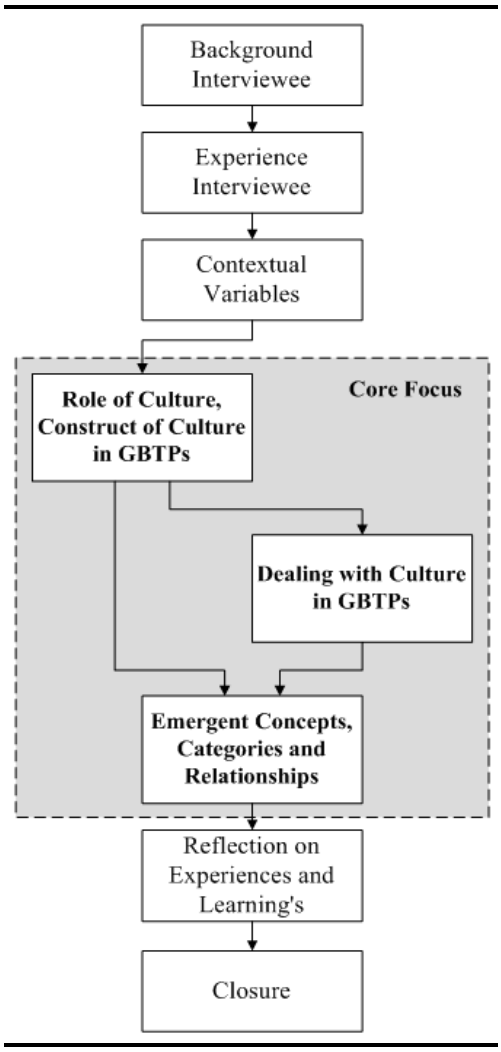

Figure 3-5: Thematic Interview Structure

Questions about the interviewees' background at the outset of this study enabled the researcher to establish rapport with the interviewee thus establishing a comfortable interview atmosphere. Then followed a set of questions about relevant experiences that provided a snapshot of GBTPs the interviewee was involved in and that could be referred to later throughout the interview. It also served as a measure to ensure their suitability. Thereafter the interview focused on the thematic core of inquiry. A complete interview protocol including the guiding interview questions can be found in Appendix A. It need to be noted here that only selected sub-questions were asked at the discretion of the researcher depending on the progression of the interview rather than all in a systematic predetermined manner.

3.4.4.2 Formulation of Interview Questions

The asking of questions is an art (Payne, 1951) and the way in which questions are formulated and asked affects the interviewee's response (Patton, 2002). In this study all interview questions were open-ended allowing interviewees to respond in their own words, describing their view of the world, in their terminology, including judgments and individual perceptions. Also open-ended questions actively encourage interviewees to talk about their experience (Martin, 1992; Patton, 2002), which is the aim of this study. Thus, caution was taken when formulating and asking interview questions as there is a risk that the data loses its richness if the researcher directs the questions too tightly (Walsham, 1995) or, that emergence is lost if the researcher imposes any view of the phenomenon under investigation (Glaser, 1992).

To ensure appropriate formulation of interview questions prior to engaging with interviewees, interview questions were piloted with experienced fellow researchers and practitioners known to the researcher. This allowed the researcher to receive suggestions for improvement regarding the structure, length, wording, and completeness and clarity of the questions and the interview format, while at the same time it trained the researcher in interviewing. In addition to the core set of interview questions, additional questions ensured that the examples reported on by interviewees were captured and understood to its full extend. These were questions such as: *What was your experience like? Can you tell me about the time when you were at this [GBTPs]? Can you describe a time when you …?* or *You said in the earlier example that … could you please elaborate on that?* This allowed the researcher to check the consistency of and discrepancies in the interviewees' reported lived experience. Inconsistencies if recognised during the interview were further questioned e.g. *Could you please explain this circumstance in further detail?* Similarities and differences between experiences were explored by asking: *What is, was the difference between … and …? or Can you compare … and …?* Mirroring questions were used as a means of reiterating the language of the interviewees in questions of sub-sequent inquiry. These formulations better engaged the interviewee to delve deeper for further insights, and to scrutinise themes with the aim to detail and challenge the emerging findings.

3.4.5 Entry

The interview is a continuous interaction between the researcher, interviewer and interviewee (Mason, 2002; Charmaz, 2006). According to Creswell *"human behaviour cannot be understood apart from the meanings that inform interaction"* (Creswell, 1998, p. 26) and hence it is critical to build rapport and trust in the initial phase of the interview in order to make the interviewee comfortable (Myers & Newman, 2007). This took up to 15min into the interview until interviewees felt comfortable, disclosed examples openly and explained them in great depth, some did not even realise that they were being interviewed.

Two common enablers for rapport and fruitful interviews were experienced across all interviews conducted. First, the shared experiences, and second the self motivated interest of the interviewee in the study.

First the shared experience of interviewees and their researcher, given his professional background [Chapter 4, section 'The Role of the Researcher during the Data Analysis'] acted as catalyst and helped to develop depth of inquiry, but also allowed better understanding of needs, values and the situation. Some of these interviewees were past colleagues and co-workers of the researcher and this aided in the recognition of shared experiences. According to McEvoy: *"Despite the numerous pitfalls, interviewing colleagues may enable the practitioner researcher to generate new knowledge and insight into their research area of work"* (2001, p. 58). Expressions used by former colleagues or co-workers included phrases such as:

> *"The second one* [GBTP Resources 1]*, which is the one you know about"* [GM-11][17]

The risk though was that the interviewee presumes background knowledge or circumstances of a specific situation are perceived in the same way by the researcher or the expectation that the researcher is aware of certain circumstances. Asking questions to further inquire or confirm circumstances, see 'Formulation of Interview Questions' mitigated this risk.

[17] [GM-11] is an unique identifier for an interviewee, 'GM' indicates that the interviewee is working for an organization and '11' stands for the sequential number of the interview. 'PSF' would indicate the interviewee is working for an professional service firm. Further details of the interviewees participating in this study is provided in Chapter 5

Second, the majority of interviewees were personally interested in the research, and gained increasing interest in the topic throughout the interview or felt that it benefited them and contributed to their own work even while participating in the interview. For example, they articulated this by saying things like

> *"I think with your help here I think I have been able to explore several areas that I have not given much thought to in the past"* [GM-08]

Some even became passionate and excited about sharing their experiences and memories and said:

> *"You know what … I really enjoyed the time on the* [GBTP Resources 1] *project, I also brought one of my old buddies to the project plus some more and so I would not have had personal reasons for not spending too much time there."* [PSF-05]

The majority of interviewees went well beyond the 60min mark, as some interviewees voluntarily extended the interviews to elaborate on their experiences.

3.4.6 Exit

The concept exit refers to *"leaving the stage"* (Myers & Newman, 2007, p. 15) and concluding the interview. At this point the interviewee was given the opportunity to add concluding remarks and ask questions. After that most interviews continued with an informal chitchat, which in many instances revealed the most interesting insight. This also provided the opportunity to kindly ask if the interviewee knows some co-workers or colleagues with similar experience and knowledge who might be interested in participating in this study.

In some instances interviewees recommended colleagues or business partners with a similar background and experience to their own who they thought might be valuable to talk to. One example follows where the interviewee said:

> *"If you want to talk to Brazilian guy, I am living with a Brazilian guy, you can ask him. He has been here for three years, he was before a bit in Germany only for three months and he is open minded, maybe he has another view of working here in Germany as a foreigner."* [GM-01]

This snowball effect[18] further added to the pool of potential interview partners who were then contacted if they meet theoretical reasons.

3.4.7 Performance

The concept of performance stands for the evaluation of drama and all action on stage. In other words, *"all the activity of a given participant on a given occasion which serves to influence in any way any of the other participants"* (Goffmann, 1959, p. 26). It can result in either a good or bad performance, and consequently affects the quality of the data generated.

Table 3-4 depicts the research performance criteria for utilising qualitative interviews as suggested by Myers and Newman (2007). Following these criteria, the performance of this study was 'good'.

[18] Snowball effect, or snowball sampling *"identifies cases of interest from people who know people who know what cases are information-rich; that is, good examples for study, good interview subjects"* Wengraf, T. (2001). *Qualitative Research Interiewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Criteria	Description	This Study
#Interviewees #Subjects	Number of interviewees interviewed and subjects [GBTPs] reported on.	32 >61
Period of Interview	Period covered by the interviewing	February 2009 till January 2011
Interview Model	Description of the interview model used	Framed by the dramaturgical model for qualitative interviewing by Myers and Newmann (2007)
Description of the Process	Extend the interview process is described	Extensive
Type of Interview	Unstructured Semi-structured Structured	Semi-structured
Recording Technique	Recording technique used, e.g. audio-recording and transcription, notes and their extend	Transcription of audio-recordings Interview notes
Thick / thin Description	Extend verbatim quotations were reported. Thick refers to extensive use, while thin refers to no or limited use of quotations	Thick
Anon / revealed	Anon refers to anonymity of the interviewees. Revealed means the identity of interviewees was provided	Anon
Feedback	Reporting if or if not feedback was provided to interviewees	Yes, feedback was provided

Table 3-4: Criteria for Qualitative Interviews to Report on

The seven guidelines for qualitative interviewing (Myers & Newman, 2007) are elaborated below, which were to:

Situate the Researcher: The role of the researcher, who was the sole interviewer, is detailed in the following Chapter 4 section on 'The Role of the Researcher during the Data Analysis'.

Minimize Social Dissonance: Social dissonance was minimised as the researcher adapted his approach, appearance as well as behaviour to the interviewee's context and the interview was situated to ensure interviewees felt comfortable. This included dressing in a similar manner; for example if the researcher knew interviewees were wearing suits, he did the same or articulated questions clearly when interviewees were not native English speakers. For instance, when interviewing Asian interviewees the researcher used a softer vocal approach in

order not to appear pushy or dominant. The researchers own past experience working in GBTPs informed this type of behaviour.

Represent Various 'Voices': The interviews were conducted one-on-one on an individual basis rather than as group and they ranged from a range of backgrounds with different experiences and had worked for different organisations and GBTPs and hence together, the interviewees represented a range of voices rather than represent a homogenous entity.

Everyone is an Interpreter: It is acknowledged that it is not only the researcher who interprets the interview. The interview in itself is an interpretation by the interviewee of his lived experiences.

Use Mirroring Questions and Answers: Mirroring questions and answers were used during the conversation with the interviewee. In addition adapting the interview questions to the tone and idiom of the interviewee's own expressions in follow-up questions as described in under 'Formulation of Interview Questions' allowed the interviewees to concentrate on their experience rather than on an imposed vocabulary.

Flexibility: Semi-structured interviews and the concept of thematic building blocks with multiple sub-questions allowed a fluid conversation as well as giving the researcher the opportunity to focus on interesting concepts. Various formulations including follow-up questions, comparative questions etc. were asked, as elaborated earlier in the section on 'Formulation of Interview Questions'.

Confidentiality of Disclosures: All audio-recordings and verbatim transcripts were stored at a secure location and were anonymised before reporting in publications.

3.5 Interviewing Individuals with a Differing Cultural Background

Next to the mechanics of interviewing, it is important to understand the respondent's worldview and the forces that might stimulate or retard responses in the process of co-creating meaning (Kahn & Cannell, 1957). Myers and Newman remind us that *"the interviewer is not simply a sponge soaking up data"* (2007, p. 15). This

is of particular importance in cross-cultural research such as this study with its interviewees of different cultural backgrounds and native languages (Wax, 1960).

When dealing with different cultures, language is always one aspect to be taken into account. This includes language proficiency and the awareness of meaning associated with words, which varies between countries or regions; abbreviations commonly used in an organisational setting; as well as understanding regional accents and expressions. Sometimes some of these unique aspects may accumulate and make it difficult to understand and interpret the 'right' meaning of the interviewees lived experience reported on. In this study where all interviews were conducted in English, twenty-one interviewees, or sixty six per cent of all interviewees spoke English as a second or third language. Nevertheless, difficulties regarding the understanding of industry-specific vocabulary as highlighted by Raitoharju et al. (2009) were not applicable to this study given that it was situated on a managerial level where technical terms are less common compared to the operational level.

In respect to the cultural background of interviewees and dealing with it the researcher had extensive professional and personal experience, and was aware of a wide range of cultural differences between countries or regions. Understanding the interviewees' cultural background and specifics of the context such as jargon, humour, jokes, sarcasm and other such expressions (Raitoharju, et al., 2009) allowed the researcher to adapt and thus minimise dissonance, as detailed in the sub-section on 'Performance'. This enabled the researcher to adapt his approach to the interviews but also interact with them during the interview. Particularly when the researcher had similar experiences as reported by the interviewee, this allowed him to ask additional detailed questions, which eventually led to a more intensive discussion. Further aspects experienced and highlighted in the literature are features of contextual and historical nature that shaped the present culture (Pearse & Kanyangale, 2009) or an earlier culture (Pettigrew, 1997).

3.6 Interview Notes

Interview notes were always taken while conducting the interviews, and these captured the constructs emphasised on by the interviewee as well as their expressions, comfort or discomfort levels, especially with disclosing information. Interview notes included immediate thoughts of the researcher, which were not added to the interview transcript as such.

Immediately after the interview concluded the interview notes were enhanced by adding observations made during the interview as well as the researcher's reflection on the interview. This included a summary of key points made by the interviewee. These included the steps undertaken to deal with culture, challenges faced while working in a culturally diverse environment, and types of culture experienced. As the study progressed, interview notes became more sophisticated and referred to specific categories or relationships.

In summary, the interview notes not only complemented the audio-recordings that were transcribed verbatim, they also provided an initial snap shot of the interview. In addition, they allowed for a self-reflection of the ongoing research such as 'What I am learning?' or 'How does this differ from the last?' (Eisenhardt, 1989).

3.7 Research Ethics

Ethical considerations were an important aspect of this research. According to Miles and Hubermann *"We must consider the rightness or wrongness of our actions as qualitative researchers in relation to the people whose lives we are studying, to our colleagues, and to those who sponsor our work.* [..] *Naiveté itself is unethical"* (1994, p. 288). This study required ethical clearance for low risk research involving human participants, since interviews expose thoughts, feelings, experience and knowledge, to the interviewer as well as to the interviewee (Patton, 2002). Ethical clearance was requested and granted for the conduct of the interviews effective from 25 February 2009 until 23 February 2013 [QUT Ref No 0900000123].

After an initial briefing, consent from the individuals participating in this study was gained and they were asked to sign an informed consent form to agree to the same Confidentiality was guaranteed in order to protect interviewees and the organisations they were reporting on from any harm. Any individually identifiable information was anonymised in order to protect the above. All interviewees were given a unique identifier rather than their names; the matching codes are only known to the researcher and stored at a secure location.

3.8 Reflections on the Data Generation

The issue with qualitative data is not the collection of the data, which, according to Richards is *"ridiculously easy"* (Richards, 2005, p. 33); it is the generation of useful and manageable data (Bazeley, 2007) and requires some planning and thought. This applies in particular to qualitative interpretive research, as this kind of research is often associated with an extensive amount of messy and large data sets as qualitative interviews generate large numbers of unstructured and complex data representing the interpretations held by the interviewee (Pries-Heje, 1991).

The introduced and applied strategy for data generation was interview research, which addresses the repeated call for innovative qualitative research methods and approaches (Hunter, 2011). It combines the breadth and depth of inquiry by generating in-depth data from a wide pool of independent interviewees. These were first sampled based on their perceived appropriateness according to the sampling criteria [selective sampling] and categories discovered in the data for theoretical reasons [theoretical sampling]. The qualitative interview being a particular type of social action was framed by the dramaturgical model (Myers & Newman, 2007) based on the theory of face-to-face interaction (Goffmann, 1959) using the theatre as a metaphor to explore social life. Deconstructing the interview into component concepts such as drama, stage, actor, audience, script, entry, exit and performance provided an additional layer of transparency.

The interview itself was semi-structured and hence catered for a flow of information and flexibility in framing the interview conversation around the thematic building blocks. This was of particular importance since every interview is different, particularly in cross-cultural research where the different cultural backgrounds add another layer. Moreover, the insights gained during the 'informal talk' post interview between interviewee and interviewer, also referred to as ‘hanging out’ (Agar, 1996) often proved to be insightful.

The researcher himself took an active role throughout the process of data generation, first in the sampling stage and then during the interviews. In turn the researcher had to continuously reflect critically on the approach and performance of conducting the interviews (Walsham, 1995). Of particular benefit was the researchers professional experience in the substantive area of investigation as it accommodated engagement with the interviewee and allowed an immediate understanding of the interviewees’ lived experiences reported, since the researcher himself had had similar experiences in the past. In addition the researchers’ professional network was a core source to find interviewees in the initial stage of this study.

The only activity the researcher did not perform was the transcription of the audio-recordings, which was outsourced.

The data generation reported in this chapter forms the empirical basis of this study. In the first stage of data generation [selective sampling and interviewing] and in the data analysis [open coding] the researcher benefited particularly by learning how to best engage with interviewees and how to ask questions in order to elicit as much information as possible. Being in the field, conducting interviews also allowed the researcher to familiarize with the research setting, the kind of data generated in particular its accessibility, quantity, and richness as well as to trial the procedures of grounded theory as research method, and determine its suitability.

This chapter elaborated on the process of data generation as applied in this study. It introduced the interview, interview research as strategy for data generation; the sampling strategies applied, and detailed the process of interviewing framed as a dramaturgical model. The next chapter will introduce the data analysis procedures and their application.

Chapter 4: Grounded Theory Data Analysis

The best scientist is open to experience and begins with romance - the idea that anything is possible.

-- Ray Bradbury

Symptoms, those you believe you recognise, seem to you irrational because you take them in an isolated manner, and you want to interpret them directly.

-- Jacques Lacan

Having generated 786 pages of interview transcripts and 424 pages of interview notes, the core question was 'How can I make sense of this data?' and 'How do I report the study's findings appropriately?' in order to address the abstract wonderment that motivated the researcher to pursue this study. If theory discovery is comparable to solving a puzzle, then data analysis is the stage where the chunks of generated data become the puzzle pieces, which require to be put together. Eisenhardt stressed: *"Analysing data is the heart of building theory* [..] *it is both the most difficult and the least codified part of the process"* (1989, p. 539). As previously stated, this study follows the 'Glaserian' grounded theory for data analysis. Glaser (Glaser, 1978) (Glaser, 1992) (Glaser, 1998) (Glaser, 2007) described grounded theory as *"a general methodology of analysis linked with data collection* [generation] *that systematically applies a set of methods to generate an inductive theory about a substantive area. The research product constitutes a*

theoretical formulation or integrated set of conceptual hypothesis about substantive area under study" (Glaser, 1992, p. 16).

This chapter details the application of grounded theory in this study. It first outlines the core elements of grounded theory relevant to this study. Then it details the application of grounded theory by the 'Iterative Process for the Discovery of Grounded Theory', in the remainder referred as iterative process to discover theory. Following this, it elaborates and discusses the role of literature and the researcher in grounded theory as well as the guidelines employed to ensure the quality of this study. This chapter then concludes with a reflection on the application of grounded theory for data analysis.

4.1 Elements of Grounded Theory

This section is to briefly introduce the core elements of Grounded Theory, while their application is elaborated on in the subsequent sections. Definitions are based on the 'Glaserian' grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) (Glaser, 1978) (Glaser, 1992) (Glaser, 1998). The following definitions were the ones that guided the data analysis in this study:

Concept: A concept is *"the underlying, meaning, uniformity and/or pattern within a set of descriptive incidents"* (Glaser, 1992, p. 38).

Examples of concepts discovered in this study are the culture types of project culture, national culture, organizational culture, industry culture, professional service firm culture and 'theme' culture.

Category: A category is *"a type of concept. Usually used for a higher level of abstraction"* (Glaser, 1992, p. 38), which *"emerge upon comparison and their properties emerge upon more comparison"* (Glaser, 1992, p. 43).

Examples of categories discovered in this study include culture types, cultural differences and understanding.

Core Category: A core category is *"a category related to most other categories and their properties which explains the resolving of a main concern"* (Glaser, 1998, p. 96). It can be a condition, process or a combination of both that represents a central phenomena to the study. One type of core category is a Basic Social Process [BSP], a process *"that can be conceptualized and related to other categories and properties by theoretical codes to integrate into a theory"* (Glaser, 1992, p. 91). A BSP must contain three characteristics: be an evolutionary process over time; have two or more emergent stages; its labelling as a gerund[19] to reflect its evolving nature and sense of nature (Glaser, 1978).

The two core categories discovered in this study are describing culture and the basic social process of dealing with culture.

Theoretical Saturation: Theoretical saturation means "*that no additional data are being found* [to further] *develop properties of the category"* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 61). However there is no formal process defined to prove theoretical saturation, as *"criteria for determining saturation* [..] *are a combination of the empirical limits of the data, the integration and density of the theory and the analyst's theoretical sensitivity"* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 62). In other words theoretical saturation is reached and data generation concludes once there is nothing new found in the data generated other than repetition of information and the confirmation of existing concepts and categories (Suddaby, 2006). Indicators for theoretical saturation are: a decreasing number of new concepts and categories; categories are developed and do not change the data generated, nor are new categories discovered; relationships between the categories are well established and stable; all major questions are answered.

In this study theoretical saturation was achieved as new data confirmed but did not add new aspects to, nor further develop the theory around the two core categories of describing culture and dealing with culture.

Theoretical Sensitivity: Theoretical sensitivity is *"the researcher's ability to have theoretical insight into his area of research, combined with the ability to make something of his insights"* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 46). It refers to the

[19] A gerund is a verb form which functions as a noun, ending in -*ing*. http://oxforddictionaries.com

researcher's experience and situates the researcher between the phenomena under investigation and the data generated. In short it means being aware of theory in general.

The researcher's theoretical sensitivity develops over the course of data generation and analysis as well as engaging with literature (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), and is not necessarily consciously recognised by the researcher (Glaser, 1992). Theoretical sensitivity gives the researcher the ability to relate concepts generated from data to the discovered theory (Glaser & Holton, 2004).

In this study, the professional experience of the researcher in the field of investigation contributed to the theoretical sensitivity of this study. This is discussed later in this chapter.

The next section details 'Iterative Process for the Discovery of Grounded Theory' first introduced in Chapter 2 and illustrates how data was analysed in this study.

4.2 Iterative Process for the Discovery of Grounded Theory

Data analysis in grounded theory occurs in parallel with data generation as a concurrent flow of activities (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Figure 4-1 visualises this iterative process for the discovery of a grounded theory.

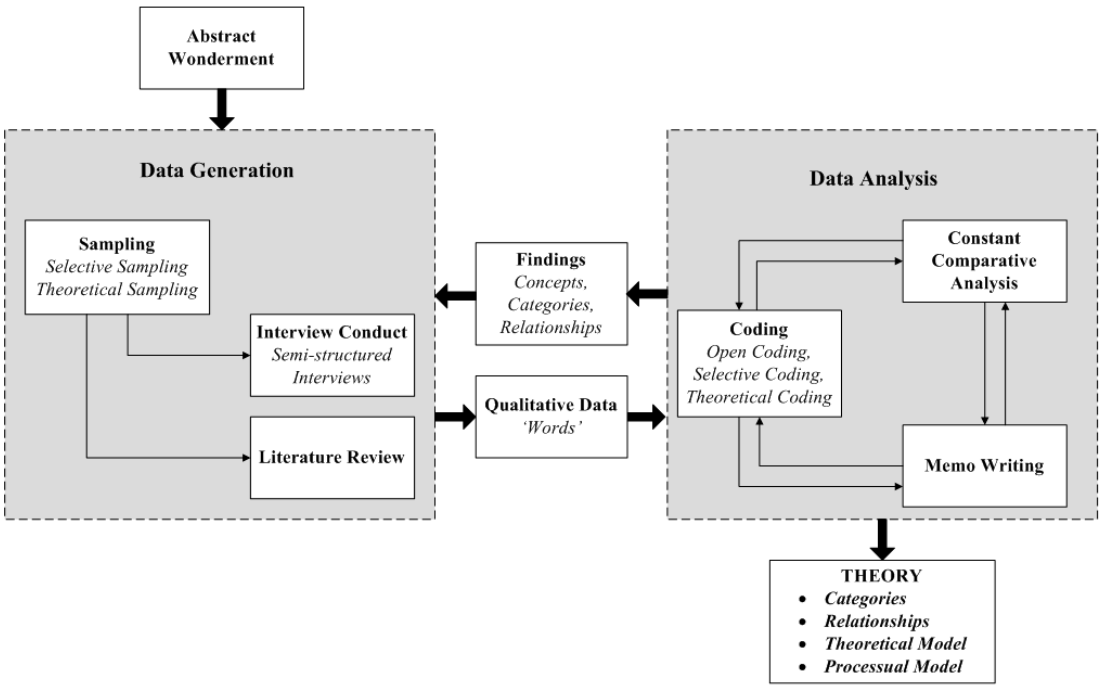

Figure 4-1: Iterative Process for the Discovery of Grounded Theory

The following sub-sections elaborate on the activities that were part of 'The Iterative Process for the Discovery of Grounded Theory' in greater depth similar to how the 'Data Generation' was elaborated on in Chapter 3. However, it is emphasised that, despite the sequential writing, the actual process for discovering a grounded theory is highly iterative. Data analysis and data generation are interlinked and enforced by the emergence of the study. This interplay may *"send the researcher in directions previously unimagined"* (Wuest, 2007, p. 248) while conceptualising patterns and relationships in the data generated.

The three analytical techniques to grounded theory data analysis are coding, constant comparative analysis, and memo writing. These are best characterised as interwoven activities within an iterative and continuous process rather than separate and sequential steps; each technique is developed in the following sections, as well as the three stages of coding.

4.2.1 Memo Writing

Writing memos is *"the core stage in the process of generating theory"* (Glaser, 1978, p. 83) and accompanies the data analysis from start to finish. It *"is the*

methodological link, the distillation process, through which the researcher transforms data into theory," (Lempert, 2007, p. 245). Memos drive the interplay between data generation and analysis as they capture the researcher's thoughts, decisions made, and interpretations of the generated data. The writing of memos is to *"provide an immediate illustration for an idea"* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 108) while it reminds the researcher to think about categories, their relation to other categories and relevance to the emerging theory. Memos not only direct the coding and theoretical sampling, they also document the process of theoretical discovery from the researcher's perspective, along with the conservation of thoughts and decisions for later reference (Locke, 2001). Moreover memos help to: raise the theoretical level; develop properties for each category and integrate these with other categories; locate and interweave other relevant theory as well as memos provide the research with flexibility and convey creativity (Glaser, 1978; Urquhart, 2001). In turn, memos are an invaluable part of data analysis and of writing up research (Scott & Howell, 2008).

Memos can consist of a few words, a sentence, a paragraph or even a few pages; memos may also include scribbling, diagrams and figures. Memo writing in theory may be distinguished by its intent. Memos can be written for the different coding stages [open coding, selective coding or theoretical coding] as the internal conversation with oneself focuses on different elements. However in practice this would limit the researchers' thoughts when writing a memo of the discovery of a category as compared to when writing a memo on the category itself or when writing about its relationships to another category.

In this study, memos were written constantly in parallel to the data analysis to cultivate the researchers' thoughts and uncover phenomena in the data. They were mostly brief written sketches of thoughts or conceptual scribbling visualising the researchers thoughts. During the early stages of data analysis memos were to reflect on the research direction about the concepts, categories. Later they also reflected on the relationships between these as well as the connections to the literature or a reflection on the study's findings. Also the memos written in this study encompass the rendering of thoughts across the concepts, categories and relationships.

The following provides two examples of written memos. The first memo reflects on the researchers observations made in the data on the category of recognition.

> *At the time a 'something' being identified and apprehended it is seen as recognized. The 'something' being anything of interest or relevance to the GBTP in the first instance particularly aspects in respect to culture, more precisely the elements of the construct of culture or contextual variables but also issues to and needs of the GBTP. The recognition in turn allows understanding these.* [13_Memo_Process_Recognition]

The second memo is an example of the researcher's interpretation of the category 'understanding' and its position in the core category dealing with culture.

> *Dealing appropriately with culture was one of the main concerns interviewees expressed, reflecting on the lived experience they reported, how they dealt with culture but also how culture required them to adapt their approach taken.*
>
> *Culture being constantly changing rather than being static requires practitioners to simultaneously adapt to the environment they operate in [applies to most reports]. It emerged of importance to fully understand the GBTP construct of culture. The understanding being a central aspect when dealing with culture, for which it allows.*
>
> *Understanding is to analyse and comprehend the GBTPs construct of culture recognised. The process of understanding involves enquires of the aspects recognised to make sense of them. It also includes assessing contextual variables present that may influence the scene of GBTPs. The level of understanding required is subjective and on the discretion of the senior management practitioner but it must allow for an appropriate management of culture as otherwise the process regresses back to the understanding or recognition* [Example: Chapter 7, vignette 'GBTP Resources 1', facet 'Communication Manner'] *Understanding is seen as part of the continuous and iterative process dealing with culture regressing back to an earlier stage is not a failure it is an improvement to deal more appropriately with culture. Describing culture, the construct of culture and contextual variables provides a framing to better understand but also recognize cultural aspects may*

present in GBTPs, comparable with a checklist. [11_Memo_Process_Understanding]

Figure 4-2 illustrates a conceptual scribbling of the researcher's thoughts on the different culture types discovered during the data analysis, their potential interrelationships and properties [31_Memo_Construct_Conceptual-Scribbling].

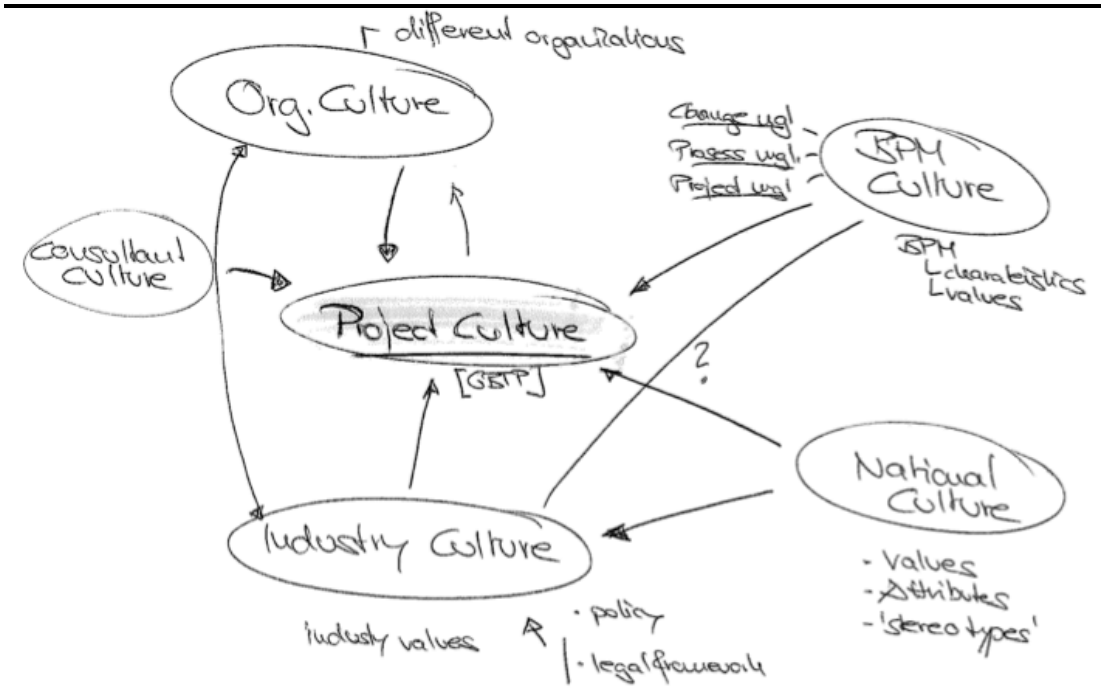

Figure 4-2: Memo Conceptual Scribbling

The memo writing, as an integral part of the data analysis process, helped to stimulate the researcher's thoughts about the phenomena induced by the interviewees' reporting, and the themes were discovered in the data by visualising or writing them down in memos. The memos proved beneficial particularly during the write-up stage as they acted as a guide from which to write the story.

The next sub-section is to introduce the analytical technique of constant comparative analysis.

4.2.2 Constant Comparative Analysis

The analytical technique of Constant Comparative Analysis [CCA] is as integral to grounded theory as memo writing and theoretical sampling. It *"provides an opportunity to examine continuous processes in context in order to draw out the significance of various levels of analysis and thereby reveal the multiple sources of loops of causation and connectivity crucial to identifying and explaining patterns in the process of change"* (Pettigrew, 1989, p. 14). CCA requires the researcher to challenge and contrast emerging relationships and explanations with alternatives (Orlikowski, 1993) and according to Eisenhardt *"this constant juxtaposition of conflicting realities tends to 'unfreeze' thinking, and* [..] *generates theory with less researcher bias"* (Eisenhardt, 1989, pp. 546-547).

In this study CCA was applied throughout the process of data analysis. It was to cross-examine the data generated by comparing different instances of incidents, concepts, categories, properties and relationships with each other to unfold distinctions, reduce redundancy and condense these.

Analogous to the progression of the coding, the focus and unit of CCA changes from the comparison of broad range incidents, concepts, categories and properties during the open coding to these related to the study's core categories while selective coding and relationships in the stage of theoretical coding. As theoretical saturation was reached, the emerging theory was then compared with supporting and contrasting literature allowing it to raise its theoretical level. This was congruent with the four stages of CCA suggested by Glaser and Strauss: first, the comparison of incidents applicable for each category; second, the integration of categories and their properties; third, the delimitation of the theory, and fourth, by writing up the theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In practice, CCA in this study was often done from the researcher's memory rather than comparing the verbatim transcripts word by word, particularly as the researcher gained familiarity with the data as suggested by Glaser and Strauss (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) though the data was consulted when the researcher sought clarification of key emerging concepts, thus referring to the original sources.

CCA yielded numerous insights which otherwise might have been overlooked, though it required the researcher to spend a large amount of time with the data going back and forth: this occurred for empirical as well as later extant literature. The CCA process resulted in a smaller set of concepts, and reduction of the coding list to a higher level of abstraction. In turn, it developed a broader theory that was applicable to a wide range of situations.

The next section elaborates on the three stages of coding in greater detail, while also reflecting on the application of CCA within each stage.

4.2.3 Coding

Coding is the core of qualitative data analysis. It is the application of a uniform set of indexing categories in a systematic and consistent manner. This process is also known as assigning nodes, sorting and classifying (Mason, 2002). The coding is an integral part of the data analysis and can be described as the researcher's journey of *"conceptualizing data by constant comparison of incident with incident, and incident with the concept to emerge more categories and their properties"* (Glaser, 1992, p. 38). The interrelated analytical techniques of constant comparative analysis and memo writing are depicted in Figure 4-3.

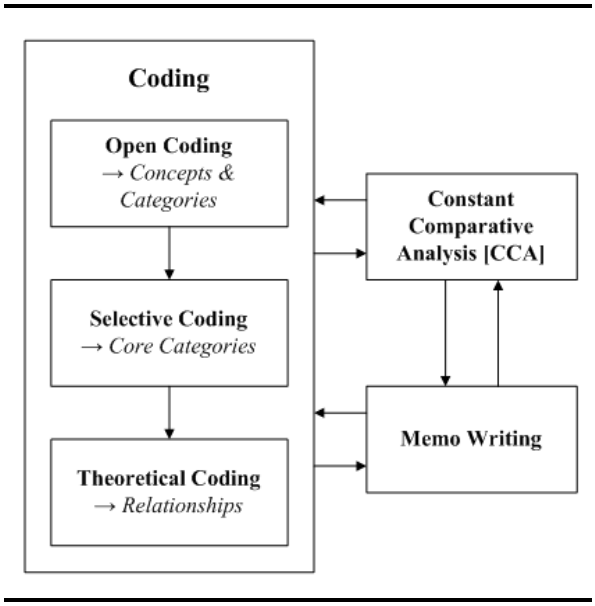

Figure 4-3: Grounded Theory Data Analysis

Figure 4-4 provides a more detailed illustration of the coding process including exemplar data as well as concepts, categories, a core category and discovered relationships in this study.

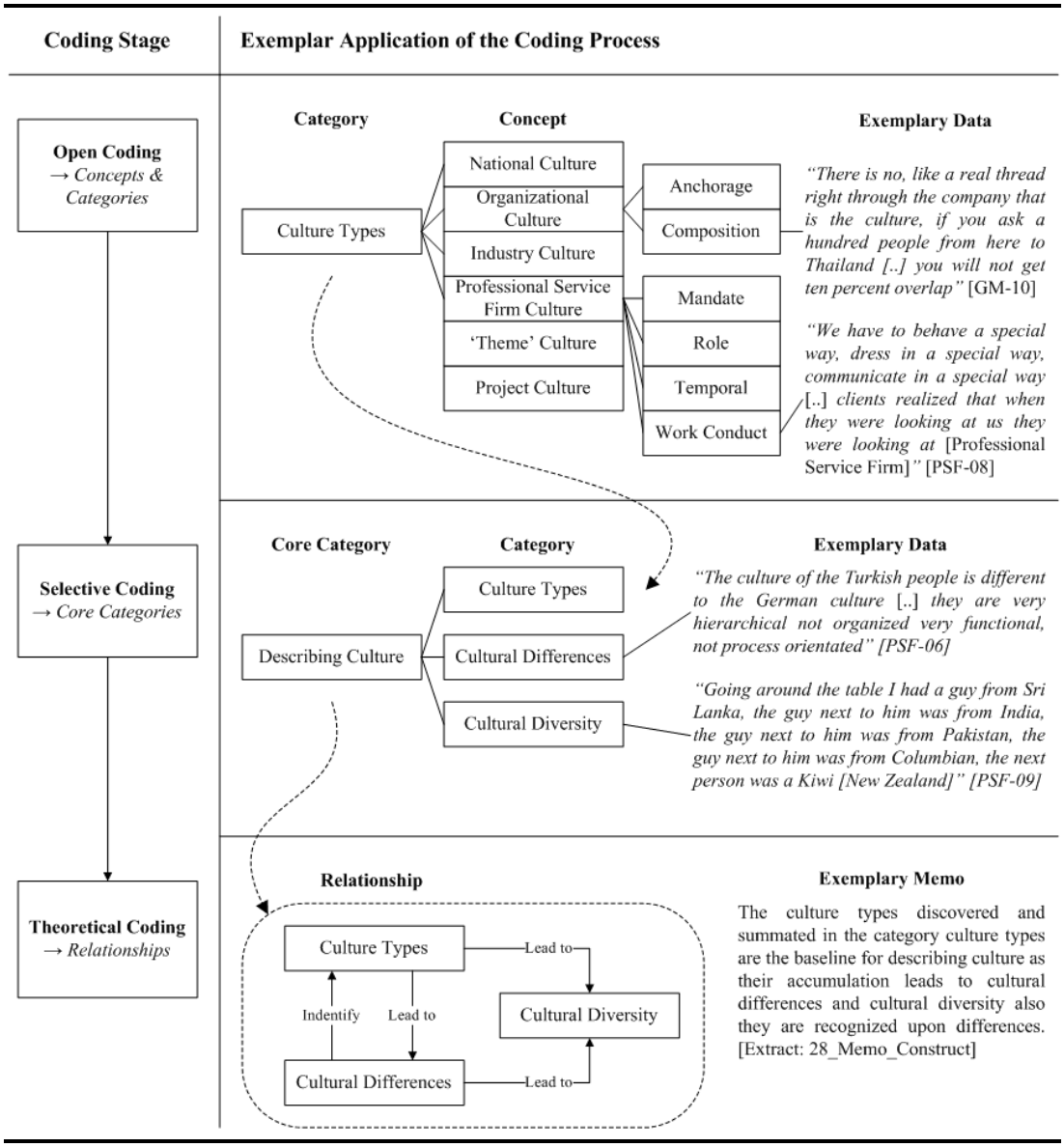

Figure 4-4: Illustration Coding Process

The following sub-sections are to introduce the three stages of coding and to illustrate their application in this study.

4.2.3.1 Open Coding

The starting point of qualitative data analysis is 'open coding' regardless of the research direction chosen (Miles & Hubermann, 1994; Boyatzis, 1998; Dey, 1999). It is a messy and time-consuming process (Creswell, 1998; Urquhart, 2001; Esteves, Ramos, & Carvalho, 2002; Reid, 2006) that commences as soon as the first transcript is prepared, when the researcher, with an unconstrained mind, asks what is happening in the data (Glaser, 1992). A rule to open coding is that *"the analyst should not assume the analytic relevance of any face sheet variable [i.e. age, sex, race] until it emerges as relevant"* (Glaser, 1978, p. 60). When concepts begin to repeat the same phenomena and become saturated, they may be aggregated to a higher level of conceptualisation to build a category. Once categories emerge the researcher engages in selective coding and thereafter in theoretical coding (Glaser, 1992) which are both detailed in consecutive sub-sections. In addition, while analysing through open coding of the initial data generated, the research problem crystallises and the delimitations of the study are discovered (Glaser, 1992).

In this study, the open coding commenced as soon as the interview transcripts were received. The verbatim transcription of the interview audio-recordings was outsourced, though turnaround time took in average only 3 to 5 days which allowed for timely data analysis while the interview was still fresh in the researcher's mind. In the meanwhile, the researcher reviewed and completed the notes taken during the interview to summarise the core of the conversation.

The first step of open coding was reading through hard copies of the interview transcripts and underlining and highlighting any incidents that built upon initial concepts or properties of potential categories that may relate to the abstract wonderment about the construct of culture, or how culture was dealt with in GBTP. Also the open coding allowed the researcher to get an idea of the data generated from the senior management practitioners who recounted their own lived experiences in GBTP.

Figure 4-5 provides an illustration of the initial manual coding highlighting and making hand notes on the print out of an interview transcript. In this particular example, an interviewee highlights the cultural differences in approaching activities

between the project sites in the United States, which are open towards change and Argentina, which are resistant towards change.

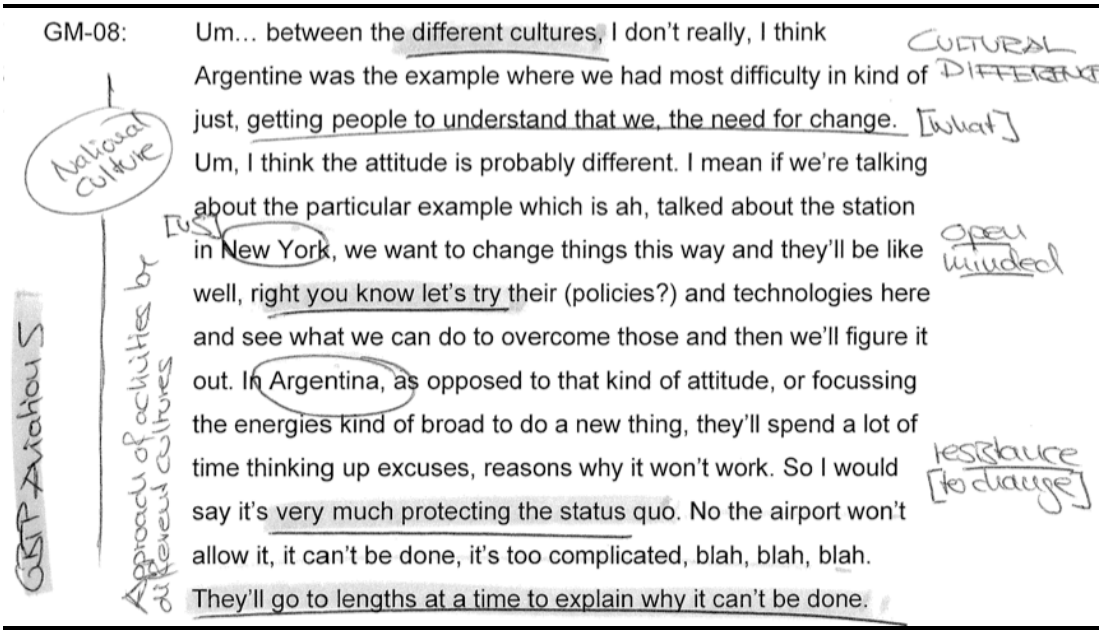

Figure 4-5: Manuel Open Coding

The actual coding at this stage was mostly done on a micro level, executed through line-by-line coding by labelling any incident that appeared to be relevant to the subject of investigation as suggested by Galal-Edeen (2001). The use of 'theory generating' questions is advised to assist the open coding (Mason, 2002; Bohm, 2004; Glaser & Holton, 2004), in order to avoid paraphrasing and keep the researcher theoretically sensitive during the iterative process of data generation and analysis. Examples of theory generating questions as suggested by Glaser and applied in this study include: 'What is actually happening in the data?' (Glaser, 1992) 'What is the main concern being faced by the participants?' (Glaser & Holton, 2004, p. 16). When coding 'new' interviews, data was constantly compared with the existing codes - CCA. If data did fit to an existing code [concept, category] it was added, otherwise a new code [concept, category] was created.

To support this coding, NVivo[20] was employed to manage the large amount of qualitative data. Therefore all interview transcripts were stored and coded in NVivo,

[20] NVivo is a Computer-assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software [CAQDAS]. More detailed information about the software may be retrieved under: http://www.qsrinternational.com

as they would have been done on paper. However, it is to be highlighted that NVivo did not drive the data analysis as it simply assisted in managing the qualitative data. In retrospect, NVivo did not prove capable of managing the complexity in the data and the thoughts of the researcher recorded in memos. The researcher became very familiar with the data at a later stage of the study, and he was able to jump directly to respective passages of the interview to compare or locate examples illustrating a concept or category during this studies write-up phase.

Preliminary discoveries in the data during the open coding indicated:

- That culture is often neglected, and rarely considered as key priority even though culture was seen to be very important by respondents.
- The distinction between organisational culture and national culture is too simplistic with the discovery of different culture types.
- Culture types are recognised by differences between cultures.
- Culture, even in instances not explicitly mentioned, is salient in GBPTs
- Culture affects the work conduct in GBPTs in both an explicit and implicit manner
- The importance of understanding the culture expressed in and the scene of GBTPs.
- The need for an approach of how culture should be dealt with in GBTPs.

These emerging concepts and codes allowed further breakdown of the abstract wonderment, led to the formulation of additional guiding research questions and directed theoretical sampling of further interviewees.

An example follows of an early memo reflecting on the observations made in the first conducted interviews. This memo outlines potential directions for this study:

> *The importance of culture is uncontested; interviewees consistently mention its importance while at the same time they remark that culture in most instances not taken into account as it could be.*
>
> *Interviewees mostly do not refer to the impact of culture when reporting on their experience in GBTP. Instead they either elaborate on what culture is, how they experienced culture e.g. type of culture, people with different cultural background being part of an GBTP, speaking different languages,*

behaving differently though not necessarily stereotypical. Or they reflect how they handled situations with a multitude of cultures e.g. adapting to the culture in place, changing the manner of communication.

These two aspects and commentaries by interviewees were similar to:

> *"Come out with a template for global initiatives, how to collaborate, communicate the process of culture with particular emphasis on the differences"* [PSF-11]

They express the need for a model or framework, which allows both describing and dealing with culture.

Such a model was not identified in the preliminary literature review, nor is the researcher aware of such a practice in industry where he has substantive professional experience. In turn this suggested a qualitative investigation to explore how senior management practitioners describe, conceptualise culture and what their practices are in dealing with culture. [03_Memo_AbstractWonderment]

An example that illustrates the open coding is the following excerpt in which an interviewee reports on the need of understanding the organisational culture in respect to the GBTP she is working on.

> *"It is very important to understand the culture of an organization and I suppose their background [..] the one consideration that you should have at least spend enough time to get a better understanding of how the organisation works, what is their background, understanding their culture specifically around the decision making process so that you can at least put a design process in place that will enable a project to get to the right decision at the right time."* [PSF-14]

The discovered open codes in sequence of the underlined text are: *understanding, organisational_culture, organisational_history, understanding_time, organisational_history, time_required, understanding, organisational_processes, organisational_history and organisational_culture*.

Figure 4-6, 1st Time-lapse coding illustrates a selection of the concepts that were discovered during that initial stage of open coding.

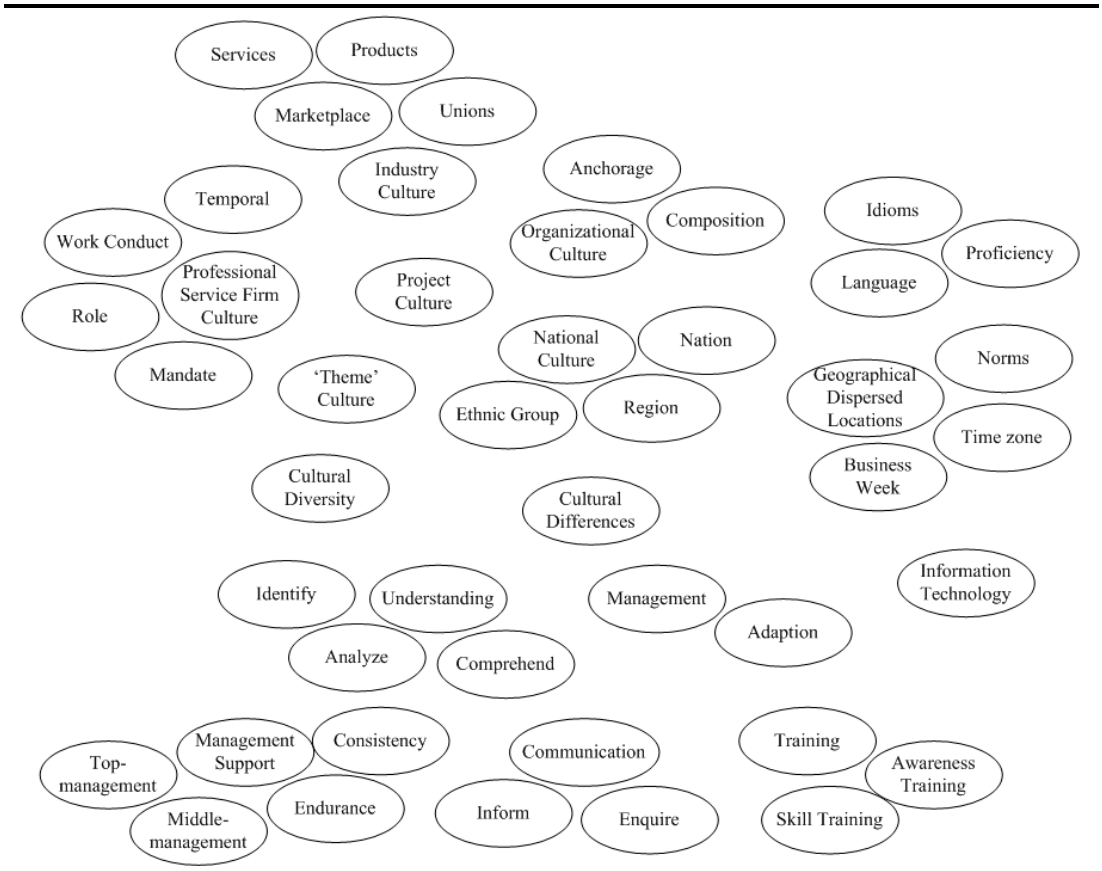

Figure 4-6: Initial Concepts [1st Time-lapse Coding]

After the discovery of initial concepts, theoretical sampling commenced, with the subsequent data generation driven by theoretical reasons, which led to a considerably reduced amount of data to be coded. Subsequently, the open-coding also became more concentrated beyond line-by-line coding and revealed the overall patterns emerging from the data, which led to the consolidation of the initial list of the aspects to the relevant subject of investigation, as observed by Galal-Edeen (2001). The goal was to discover the meaning of patterns emerging from the entire data set, across all interviews, rather than just contrast the reported lived experience of the thirty-two interviewees. At this stage, CCA was applied for the constant comparison of discovered concepts until these became clear, and had a similar level of abstraction as well as a meaningful description and label. This required numerous iterations where concepts were combined or split and labelling revised. In practice, some concepts were more coherent than others, and some seemed irrelevant at first but comparison showed that they are related to each other. CCA in turn allowed

patterns of concepts with similar meaning to form into categories but also eliminate redundancy of concepts.

The open coding resulted in patterns of concepts and categories being the foundation of the emerging theory and next stage of selective coding. Figure 4-7, shows the 2nd Time-lapse coding scheme.

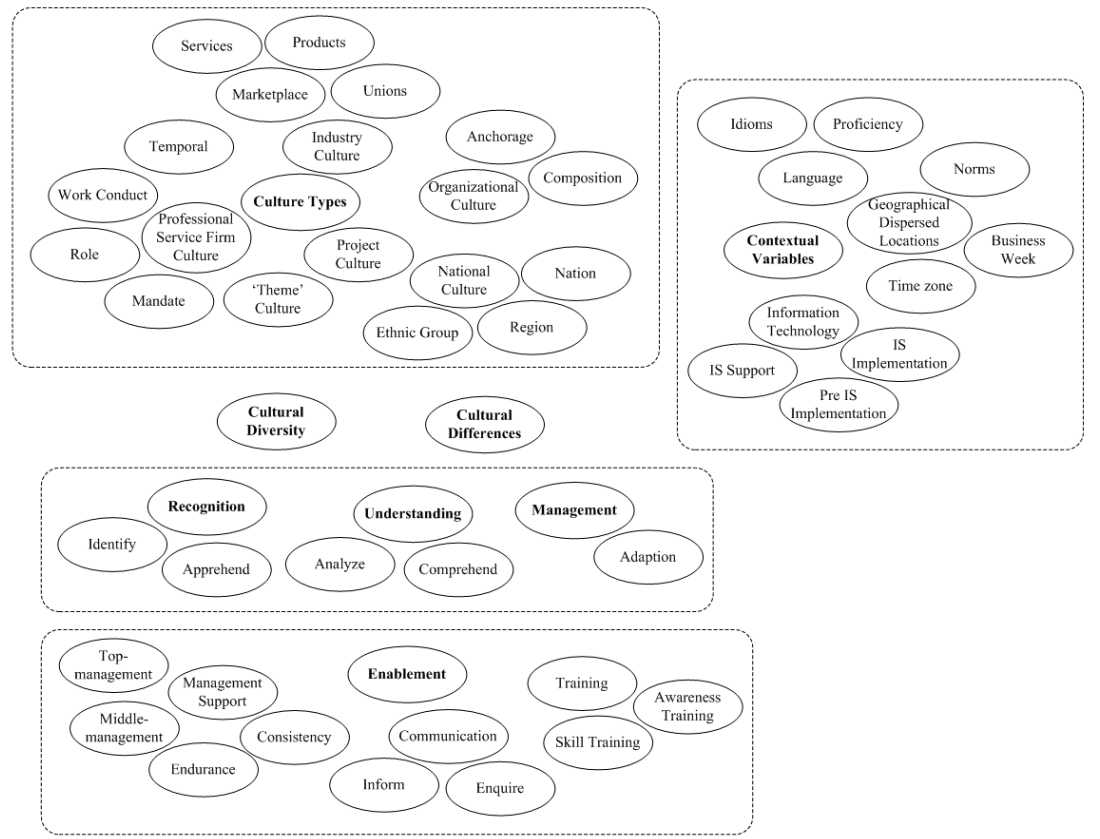

Figure 4-7: Patterns of Concepts and Categories [2nd Time-lapse Coding]

The categories derived from the open coding stage were:

- Culture Types
- Cultural Differences
- Cultural Diversity
- Recognition
- Understanding
- Management
- Enablement
- Contextual Variables

The core of the coding revolved around the 'abstract wonderment' of describing culture and how to deal with culture expressed in GBTP. As advised by Klein and Myers (1999) the researcher remained open to concepts and relationships to be discovered from the data. For instance, the discovered contextual variables of GBTP were the geographically dispersed locations, languages employed and role of Information Technology [IT]. IT, as contextual variable to GBTP, was only discovered by carefully unfolding the data despite it being part of every GBTP reported by interviewees. Its discovery is attributed to the continuous writing of memos reflecting on the researcher's thoughts; this allowed for a deduction of its presence and the role of IT in GBTPs. The following is one example of a memo written on the aspect of IT:

> *Information technology is a consistent part of every GBTP that interviewees reported on. IT is omnipresent in GBTP though not necessarily pointed out directly in the reports of interviewees. It was explicitly referred to as a factor when IT was part of the GBTPs deliverables or even a driver of the GBTP e.g. an information systems implementation. In other instances, despite its importance, IT is only mentioned indirectly by noting things such as video conferencing, and systems supporting operations, as both suggest that IT is an embedded part of enabling GBTPs.*
>
> *In other instances a distinction was made in respect to the affinity towards IT being reported as dependent on the economic development of countries, or the organisational background. Professional service firms overall were associated with a high level of affinity towards IT. One aspect of it was the adoption and utilisation of IT in GBTPs.*
>
> *It might be of interest to continuing research to further explore the role of IT in respect to culture.* [07_Memo_IT]

This memo summarises the researcher's thoughts at this stage of the data analysis, which led to the classification of IT as a contextual variable to GBTP with its role in IS Implementation, Pre IS Implementation and IS Support. The sub-section on 'Information Technology' in Chapter 5 further elaborates on these elements.

One challenge to the open coding process was that the concepts generated in the first instance did not necessarily integrate with others. Considering them as

puzzle pieces, CCA and memo writing allowed them to be integrated on a higher level of abstraction. Orlikowski (1993) had a similar experience when comparing concepts generated from two different case study sites.

In this study of GBTP, different accounts not only provided unique insights into a variety of GBTPs, but grounded theory allowed these to be incorporated in the emergent theory. Eisenhardt coined the term 'controlled opportunism' to describe how *"researchers take advantage of the uniqueness of a specific case and the emergence of new themes to improve resultant theory"* (1989, p. 539). This phenomenon was apparent in this GBTP study.

Open coding concluded with the discovery of eight categories including their respective concepts and properties. These allowed explanation of what was happening in the data and additional data generated did not add to that – this meant that theoretical saturation was reached. The discovered categories though were subject to revision in the stages of selective and theoretical coding elaborated in the following. A final list of the categories discovered in the data is shown in the next section, Table 4-1.

4.2.3.2 Selective Coding

Selective coding is the transformation from the specific to the general. It focuses on the 'tentative' core category and narrows down the concepts relating to it for *"to selectively code means to cease open coding and to delimit coding to only those variables that relates to the core variable, in sufficiently significant ways to be used in a parsimonious theory"* (Glaser, 1992, p. 75). Selective coding aims to explain the category of utmost significance, their conditions, boundaries and properties in the most simplified way. Selective coding is characterised by reduction, scaling-up and densification. It delimits the emerging theory and tentative core categories into one or two core categories, which are significant, and are higher conceptual level categories that are transferable to other substantive areas (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In short, coding efforts were concentrated around the tentative categories, while new data is generated for theoretical reasons by theoretical sampling.

In this study the selective coding was used to build upon and develop the concepts and categories derived during the open coding to formulate the core categories. This reduced the breadth of coding while increasing its depth focusing on the comparison of incidents, concepts and categories of relevance to a core category, and by removing all those that were not relevant. In turn, not all discovered concepts were further developed an aspects discovered in the beginning but not core to the investigation were set aside for future research. This led to a reduction of the coding list. Selective coding also required revisiting data, comparing and re-coding the coded data in light of the core categories. A side effect of the continuous engagement with the data was the aspect of quality control, confirming a consistent interpretation of the data. This translated to a concentration of the coding efforts around the categories of culture types, cultural differences, cultural diversity, recognition, understanding, management and enablement. The two core categories discovered in the data were:

- Describing Culture, which is more fully described in Chapter 6
- Dealing with Culture, which is more fully described in Chapter 7

A technique applied during the selective coding was the concept indicator model. The *"concept indicator model is based on constant comparing of indicator to indicator, and then when a conceptual code is generated also comparing indicators to the emerging concept."* (Glaser, 1978, p. 62). The concept indicator model relies on the principle of constant comparison of indicators. Indicators can be incidents, concepts or categories depending on the stage of the research on different levels of granularity - concepts being the indicators for categories and categories the indicators for core categories.

The concept indicator model does not further specify the relationship between the concept and its indicator. In the instance of the category *culture types*, the concepts indicator model summates the culture types discovered. The later stage of theoretical coding further specified the relationships between the culture types, for example the culture type *project culture* of a GBTP was seen to be the amalgamation of the culture types instantiated in the GBTPs. This aspect is developed more fully in Chapter 6, in the section 'Typology of Culture Types'.

Figure 4-8 illustrates the concept indicator model for the category of culture types, which is indicated by the different culture types [concepts] discovered.

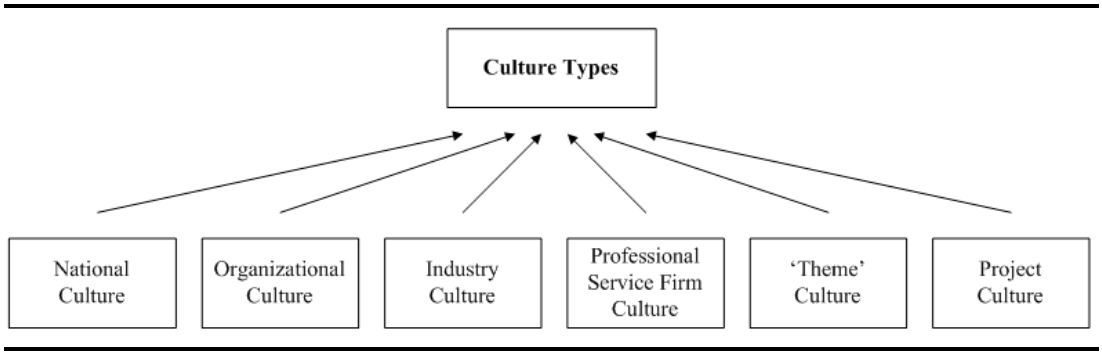

Figure 4-8: Concept Indicator Model Category Culture Types

Figure 4-9, 3rd Time-lapse coding depicts a visualization of the overall concentration of these patterns around the core categories in comparison to Figure 4-6 and Figure 4-7 [open coding].

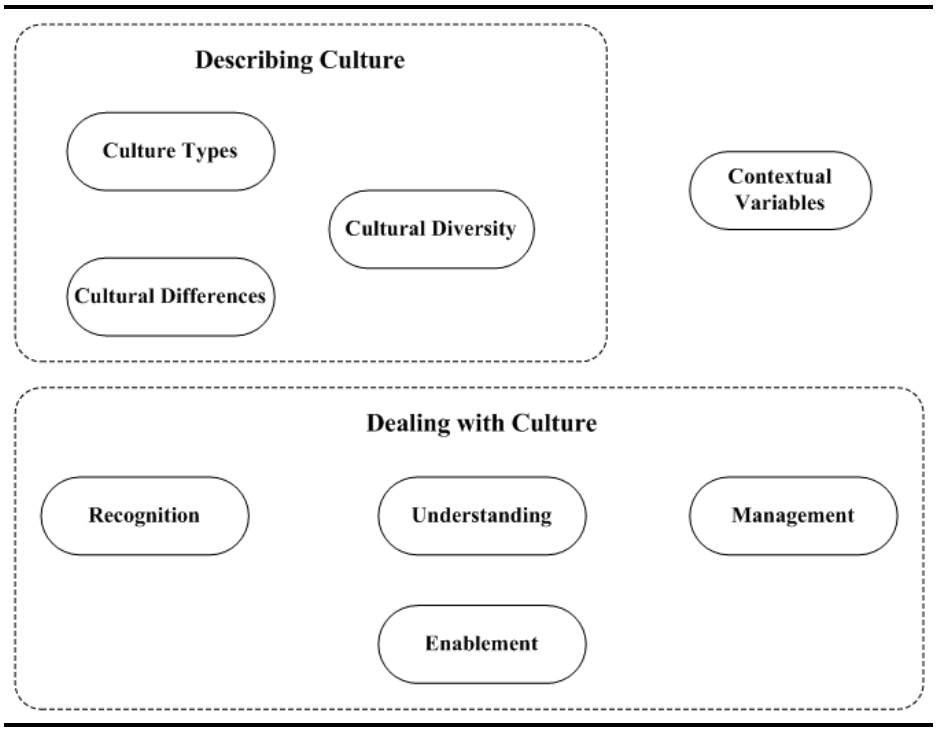

Figure 4-9: Densified Patterns of Categories [3rd Time-lapse Coding]

These categories and concepts are summarized in Table 4-1.

Category / *Concept*		**Description**
Culture Types	*Project Culture*	Culture of a GBTP that describes the construct of culture of a specific GBTP,
	National Culture	Reflects on the behaviour, task accomplishment visible and recognized by the acting of individuals or groups specific to a country or region
	Organizational Culture	Stands for the patterns of assumptions and values shared among members of an organization that determine its, the organization's behaviour
	Industry Culture	Shares patters of assumptions, values and characteristics across organisational boundaries within an industry sector
	Professional Service Firm Culture	Is the organizational culture of a professional service firm instantiated by the professional service firm involved in the GBTP
	Theme' Culture	Represents a dominant overarching something, a theme that shapes the behaviour and manner of work conduct
Cultural Differences		Stand for discrepancies between culture types. These in turn allow to identify culture types instantiated in a GBTPs but also lead to cultural diversity.
Cultural Diversity		Stands for the presence of multiple culture types in an organisational setting, a GBTP. It is the accumulation of different culture types instantiated in a GBTP and aggregation of differences between these culture types.
Recognition		To identify and apprehend the culture types instantiated in the GBTP, the cultural differences between those, contextual variables of the GBTP as well as needs and issues present
Understanding		To analyse and then comprehend the construct of culture and contextual variables present in an GBTP as well as the implications of both
Management		To respond to the identified needs and issues in the stages of recognition and understanding by planning and executing an appropriate strategy to deal with culture.
Enablement	*Management Support*	An individual's or a group's position and its associated power as of the means to enable GBTPs by activities including decision making, resources allocation, problem solving.
	Communication	Process of exchanging, sharing, transmitting as well as making an enquiry, expressing thoughts and feelings in a manner that another person understands these.
	Training	Action of teaching an individual or a group a particular skill or type of behaviour, which prepares for a particular event or activity.
Contextual Variables	*Geographically Dispersed Locations*	Space, physical locations were a GBTP is located including associated sub-sets or groups.
	Language	Method, system of communication by written or spoken words
	Information Technology	Refers to the use of systems for processing, storing, retrieving, and, or sending information.

Table 4-1: Categories and Concepts derived from Data

Selective coding concluded at the stage when the core category became clear, and new data generated did not add to or change the discovered core category, as theoretical saturation of the core category was reached.

The next step was to build upon the selective coding, which is to integrate the concept and categories of the core category to a theory by theoretical coding.

4.2.3.3 Theoretical Coding

Theoretical coding is to establish 'relations' between the theoretical constructs (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) using *"a property of coding and constant comparative analysis that yields the conceptual relationship between categories and their properties as they emerge,"* (Glaser, 1992, p. 38). In contrast to open and selective coding which are to explain what is happening in the data, the theoretical coding is *"to create inferential and/or predictive statements [sometimes in the form of hypotheses] about the phenomena"* (Urquhart, et al., 2010, p. 367). It attempts to answer the question: How are categories connected? ,and in doing so, provides the theoretical framework. In short, theoretical coding connects, interweaves, and explains the relationships between concepts and or categories to formulate theory, which is critical in generating theory (Urquhart, 2001).

In this study theoretical coding, also referred to as the construction of theory, commenced as the theoretical scheme of the discovered categories around the core categories describing culture and dealing with culture saturated to systematically integrate these to a theoretical model. The description of the interrelationships between the categories was informed by the data generated. This attempt was similar as presented in the work of Sulayman et al. (2012) and did not make direct use of the coding families suggested by Glaser (1978).

The relationships discovered over the course of theoretical coding on the highest level of abstraction between the categories of the core categories were:

- *Lead to* and *Identify* for the core category of describing culture [Theoretical Model of the Construct of Culture, Chapter 6]
    - Culture types *lead to* cultural differences and cultural diversity

  - Cultural differences *lead to* cultural diversity and are to *identify* culture types
- *Allow, Regress back* and *Enable* for the core category and Basic Social Process of dealing with culture [Processual Model of the Process for Managing Culture, Chapter 7]
  - Recognition *allows* for understanding
  - Understanding *allows* for management or *regresses back* to recognition
  - Management may *regress back* to either understanding or recognition
  - Enablement *enables* recognition, understanding and management

In addition the contextual variables to GBTPs were found to *influence* the construct of culture and both the construct of culture and contextual variables to GBTPs *inform* the process for managing culture.

The following two examples demonstrate the relationship '*lead to'* in the interviewees reporting.

First, how different culture types of national culture *lead to* cultural differences:

> *"We experienced differences in the manner of work conduct and behaviour between the people coming from Russia and the staff in the German headquarter but also the colleagues from the United States"* [GM-05]

Second, how multiple culture types *lead to* cultural diversity:

> *"We made a point of having the project team diverse. So we have got thirty-six different nationalities on the project team"* [GM-11]

An example of the difference between the patterns of concepts and categories discovered in the stages of open and selective coding and their theoretical integration is the category of culture types.

The category of culture types as illustrated in the concept indicator model Figure 4-8 summarises the culture types discovered in this study and together with the categories of cultural differences and cultural diversity describes the construct of culture. From an integrated perspective of describing culture, it is the project culture in which the culture types present are instantiated and that describes the GBTP's

construct of culture. The Chapter 6 section on 'Typology of Culture Types' further elaborates on that aspect.

Figure 4-10, 4th Time-lapse coding illustrates the continuance to Figure 4-6 and Figure 4-7 [both open coding] and Figure 4-9 [selective coding] to the integration of the categories to a theory.

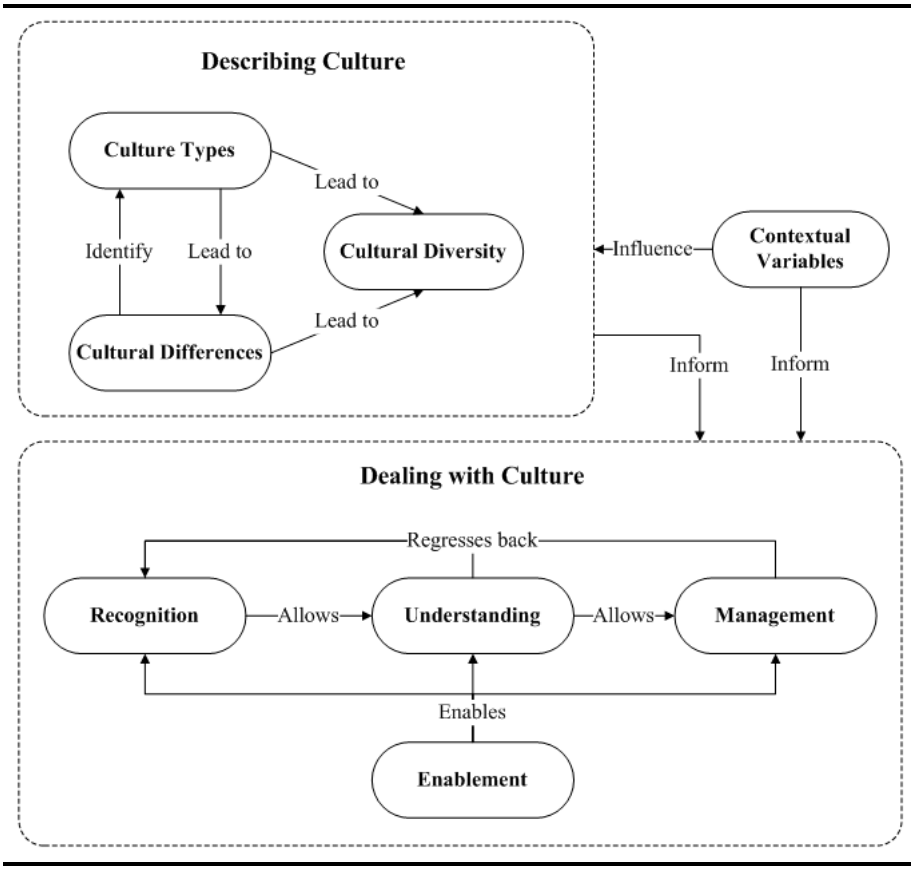

Figure 4-10: Integrated Categories [4th Time-lapse Coding]

The Figure 4-6, Figure 4-7, Figure 4-9 and Figure 4-10 [1st to 4th Time-lapse Coding] showed a visualisation of the coding process time-lapse illustrating the reduction to theory from incidents on a micro level to its core categories of describing culture and dealing with culture and leading to a final abstract conceptual level. An integral view of these is given in Figure 4-11.

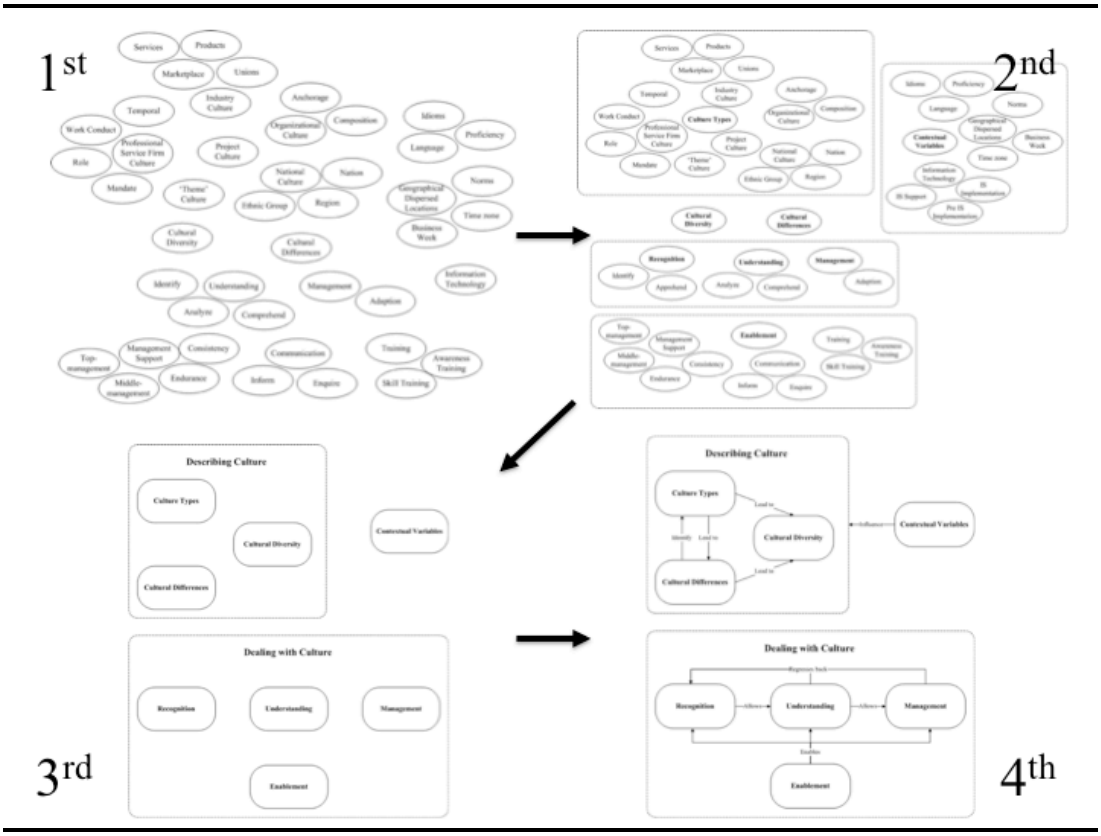

Figure 4-11: Coding Time-lapse

Table 4-2 provides a summary of the relationships between the categories.

Category	Relationship
Culture Types	*lead to* cultural differences
	lead to cultural diversity
Cultural Differences	*lead to* cultural diversity
	identify culture types
Recognition	*allows* understanding
	understanding may *regressess back* to recognition
	management may *regressess back* to recognition
Understanding	*allows* management
	may *regresses back* to recognition
	management may *regressess back* to understanding
Management	may *regresses back* to understanding
	may *regresses back* to recognition
Enablement	*enables* recognition
	enables understanding
	enables management
Contextual Variables	*influence* the construct of culture
	inform the process for managing culture

Table 4-2: Relationships between the Categories derived from Data

The following is to discuss the two core categories of 'Describing Culture' and 'Dealing with Culture'.

Describing Culture: The core category describing culture links together the categories of culture types, cultural differences and cultural diversity. The remainder of this study [Chapter 6] deals with these, referred to as the elements of the construct of culture. This is to decompose the amalgamation of the different culture types, which are identified as cultural differences and its concurrent presence represents cultural diversity, together which explain the construct of culture in general and the project culture of a GBTP in specific.

A typical memo about the core category of 'describing culture' is below:

> *Culture can be systematically described by decomposing the construct of culture in the elements [categories] culture types, cultural differences and cultural diversity. These allow description of the culture present in the context of any GBTP.*
>
> *The culture types discovered and summarised in the category culture types are the baseline for describing culture as their accumulation leads to cultural differences and cultural diversity and are recognised upon differences.*
>
> *The construct of culture allowing description of culture also provides contextual variables to GBTP and the framing for dealing with culture, particularly the stages of recognition and understanding culture.* [28_Memo_Construct]

Chapter 6 is dedicated to the core category of describing culture and elaborating on the theoretical model of the construct of culture as well as its elements in greater detail. Moreover the vignettes provided in Chapter 6 illustrate the construct of culture of GBTPs reported by senior management practitioners.

Dealing with Culture: The second core category is a basic social process of management that is represented by the 'Processual Model of the Process for Managing Culture'. This processual model connects and integrates the categories of recognition, understanding, and management as well as enablement. It allows explanation of all conceptual instances of dealing with culture reported on by interviewees in a systematic and formalised manner. A process perspective was seen

as appropriate to integrate and explain the sequential though interrelated stages of the processual model. The progression of the process to manage culture is intimately connected to the elements of enablement, which enable any given stage to progress through to a consecutive stage. The process to manage culture may regress back in its evolution if this management fails, or if there is a lack of understanding, or if its characteristics are not recognised. Chapter 7 is dedicated to elaborate in greater depth on the 'Processual Model of the Process to Manage Culture', which is depicted in Figure 7-1 of the same.

The following memo provides insights into the researchers' thoughts on *dealing with culture* during the data analysis.

> *To deal with culture is a process that encompasses and integrates the stages [categories] of recognition, understanding and management, which are enabled by the elements of enablement. This process provides a guideline rather than detailed activities to apply. The scene of the GBTP framing this process will determine the unique requirements to be addressed.* [25_Memo_Process]

Dealing with culture complies with the criteria for a basic social process suggested by Glaser, which are two or more emergent stages [recognition, understanding and management] that evolves over time [sequential nature], and the gerund in the word - 'dealing' rather than 'deal with' - reflects their evolving nature and motion (Glaser, 1978). Data analysis concluded that the concepts and categories discovered as well as their relationships did not change, were stable, and the core categories allowed explanation of the 'abstract wonderment' around describing and dealing with culture.

A further elaboration and discussion in the light of extant literature of both core categories is found the Chapter 6 and Chapter 7 respectively. The latter chapter further shows the integration between both describing culture and dealing with culture within the stages in the processual models. The implications to theory and practice of both are discussed in Chapter 8.

4.2.4 Vignettes

Vignettes were employed to illustrate the empirical grounding of the discovered theory, and the theoretical models. The use of vignettes was inspired by the work of Avital and Te'Eni (2009). A vignette is to *"offer an invitation for the reader to step into the space of vicarious experience, to assume a position in the world of the research - to live the lived experience along with the researcher"* (Ely, Vinz, Downing, & Anzul, 1997, p. 72). Their practical worth is to chime in with the senior management practitioner's experience and gain the trust of these (Ely, et al., 1997). Also, vignettes are easy to read, making the research accessible to readers (Spalding & Phillips, 2007) and *"meet the demands of rigor required of qualitative research"* (Wilson & While, 1998, p. 85). Vignettes do not introduce new or advance theoretical constructs. In contrast to other research, vignettes in this study are only used as a means of data representation of the derived theoretical models, not for data collection, generation or analysis. In the language of Ely et al. (1997) vignettes are 'portraits' of what was being said by interviewees. Vignettes are not meant to be exhaustive.

Each vignette reported in this study is an illustration of key issues senior management practitioners were dealing with when working in culturally diverse contexts. Vignettes are to be found in Chapter 6 illustrating the construct of culture in GBTPs and Chapter 7 Illustrating on the processual model of the process for managing culture how culture is dealt with in GBTPs.

4.3 The Role of Literature in Grounded Theory

"Being a good author of grounded theory requires a lot of reading" (Glaser, 1992, p. 37). Grounded theory is not an excuse to ignore literature (Suddaby, 2006) but it is to carefully determine and articulate at which stage and to what extend the literature review is to be conducted (Cutcliffe, 2000; McGhee, Marland, & Atkinson, 2007). Engagement with theory prior to generating and analysing data exposes the risk to contaminate, inhibit, stifle or otherwise impede the research process of developing concepts, categories and their properties from the data (Glaser, 1992). Grounded Theory purists caution the researcher on utilising existing and available

empirical knowledge too soon, given the *"the probability of brutally destroying one's potentials as theorist"* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 253). On the other hand ignoring literature could result in flaws, *"what we discover will depend in some degree on what we are looking for - just as Columbus could hardly have 'discovered' America if he had not been looking for the 'Indies' in the first place"* (Dey, 1999, p. 104).

This study concurs with Urquhart's position that *"there is no reason why a researcher cannot be self aware and be able to appreciate other theories without imposing them on the data"* (Urquhart, 2007, p. 351). In other words, observations must *"be guided and influenced by some initial hunches and frames of reference [..] a open mind is good; an empty mind is not"* (Siggelkow, 2007, p. 21). The benefits of doing a review of literature in the early stage are that: it highlights existing knowledge (Creswell, 1998); ensures the work is new and has not been done (Denzin, 2002; Chiovitti & Piran, 2003; McMenamin, 2006); provides a convincing rationale (McGhee, et al., 2007), conceptualises the study and helps to sensitise concepts (Coffey & Aktinson, 1996; McCann & Clark, 2003a); gain theoretical sensitivity (McCann & Clark, 2003b; McGhee, et al., 2007); orientates the researcher (Urquhart, 2007); can promote *"clarity in thinking about concepts and possible theory development"* (Henwood & Pidgeon, 2006, p. 350) and prevents conceptual or methodological pitfalls (McGhee, et al., 2007). Finally, not being informed of the current discussion in the substantive area leaves room for criticism (Coffey & Aktinson, 1996).

In practice, this meant that the researcher engaged with literature at two stages: First to explore the area under investigation and second to enfold literature by weaving in relevant literature to further develop the emerging theoretical constructs. In the initial explorative phase of this study a *"preliminary literature review is* [was] *conducted on the understanding that* "*it is the generated theory that will determine the relevance of the literature"* (Urquhart & Fernandez, 2006, p. 5) as well as to explore and contextualise the substantive field of investigation. The intent was thereby not to produce findings (Glaser, 1992), nor to provide a summary of *"an endless series of theories and studies"* (Yukl, 2002, p. xvii), but to sensitise the researcher by identifying the current stage of knowledge from both an academic and

practitioner perspective. In short, it set the *"geography of the dissertation* [subject]*"* (McMenamin, 2006, p. 125). In addition to academic literature, other information sources included practitioner magazines, such as journals published by professional service firms and also discussion forums or related blogs. The initial literature review is summarized in the section 'Problem Statement' in Chapter 1. This reading complemented the researchers' experience in the substantive area under investigation and led to the 'abstract wonderment.'

Delaying the extensive review of the literature for after data generation allows time to comply with the classic 'Glaserian' grounded theory approach as well as it saves resources [time] since the review of literature may not necessarily contribute to the studies findings (Glaser & Holton, 2004).

Second, enfolding literature as part of the data analysis, *"a mass of descriptive material* [is] *waiting for a theory, or a fire"* (Coase, 1988, p. 230). Grounded theory treats literature as a source of data (Glaser & Holton, 2004) in the process of theoretical sampling and constant comparative analysis for the researcher to *"integrate existing literature on the substantive topic into their thinking as the theoretical categories and framework stabili*se" (Locke, 2001, p. 122). In other words, it is deductive in nature, verifying and interweaving of similar as well as contrasting literature (McGhee, et al., 2007) with the discovered theory. It is also an iterative process that is parallel to the data generation in order to explain, advance, strengthen and saturate the discovered theory.

The enfolding phase commenced as theoretical constructs and their relationships were discovered and theory was tentative a search for literature was conducted that was related to the discovered themes. The process of interweaving relevant literature, both of a supporting and constraining nature was similar to the analysis of empirical data a long winding and iterative process. This resulted in raising the theoretical level and the formulation of theory. In this study, the relevant literature is interwoven in the chapters presenting the theoretical models derived from this study [Chapter 6 and 7] rather than in a dedicated literature review chapter as suggested by Van Niererk and Roode (2009).

In retrospect it is to be noted that the initial literature review did not manipulate the research program, nor impose concepts or theories since the scope of the research

was to discover theory from data and differed to the scope of the initial literature review. Also, for Ph.D. students it is often not feasible to ignore literature in the initial state of their research (Nathaniel, 2006; McGhee, et al., 2007; Dunne, 2011). The doctoral program at the Queensland University of Technology for example requires Ph.D. students to write an annotated bibliography as well as a literature review as part of the mandatory coursework in their first stage of candidature, which was part of exploring the field. At the same time engaging with literature allowed for *"a sensible theoretical basis to inform the topics and approach of the early empirical work"* (Walsham, 1995, p. 76) and a means to evaluate the relevance of theory to the generated empirical data (Urquhart, 2001, 2007). Further it provided the researcher a better understanding of academic research, qualitative methods, and academic writing.

The later interweaving of literature was to challenge and supplement emerging theory. It shaped and strengthened the discovered theory and at the same time demonstrated that the study builds on, contributes to, and links to the knowledge in the field. Also it allowed the researcher to participate in the current theoretical conversations (Lempert, 2007).

4.4 The Role of the Researcher during the Data Analysis

Humans *"are serial information processors, able to compartmentalize, and willing to forget. Humans also can use devices that increase independence, devices such as the relational algorithm and strong classification systems, and social arrangements in the interest of independence"* (Weick, 1989, p. 529). In qualitative interpretive research such as this study, the researcher has a significant influence on both the process of data generation as well as data analysis. The researcher shapes the generated account of data by scaling its focus, but also the kind of engagement with the interviewees during the interview (Schultze & Avital, 2011). Similarly the data analysis is determined by the researchers subjective interpretation. Thus, *"it is important that interpretive researchers have a view of their own role in this complex human process,"* (Walsham, 1995, p. 77). However there is no right or wrong and

findings should be perceived as constructed 'ideals' rather than an objective description (Martin, 1992).

In grounded theory the researcher's role is seen either as a 'distant expert', arguing for neutrality, impartiality and dispassion of the researcher (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1992; Clarke, 2003) or as a 'co-producer' (Charmaz, 1995) linking his or her own personality to the research method. In this study, despite following the 'Glaserian' tradition, the researcher sees himself as a co-producer and as a co-creator with a unique contribution to the project (Fendt & Sachs, 2008). Also the admonition for neutrality, impartiality and dispassion (Glaser, 1978) contradicts with the passion of the researcher, particularly of Ph.D. students (Fendt & Sachs, 2008). Moreover the researcher's behaviour and sensitivities are determined by his background, education, and experience that may affect what interviewees reveal during the data generation as well as his interpretation of the generated data. Russell provides an example of this phenomenon:

"The manner in which animals learn has been much studied in recent years, with a great deal of patient observation and experiment. Certain results have been obtained as regards the kinds of problems that have been investigated, but on general principles there is still much controversy. One may say broadly that all the animals that have been carefully observed have behaved so as to confirm the philosophy in which the observer believed before his observations began. Nay, more, they have all displayed the national characteristics of the observer. Animals studied by Americans rush about frantically, with an incredible display of hustle and pep, and at last achieve the desired result by chance. Animals observed by Germans sit still and think, and at last evolve the solution out of their inner consciousness. To the plain man, such as the present writer, this situation is discouraging. I observe, however, that his own philosophy, and this probably accounts for the differences in the results. The animal responds to one type of problem in one way and to another in another; therefore the results obtained by different investigators, though different, are not incompatible. But it remains necessary to remember that no one investigator is to be trusted to give a survey of the whole field." (Russell, 1927, pp. 23-34)

In this study the researcher had substantive professional experience and first-hand knowledge in the field of investigation. He worked for both multinational

organisations as well as professional service firms across Europe, Asia-Pacific and Africa while living in Germany, South Africa, Malaysia, Thailand, China, Singapore and Australia. In his capacity as project member, lead consultant, mentor and trainer to organisations on a strategic and operational level he has been working on large-scale business transformation projects but also advising small and medium-sized family owned businesses in different geographical locations. Paired with personal experiences gained through extensive traveling across the globe the researcher observed and experienced multiple issues caused by cultural differences. For completeness it is to be added that the researcher grew up in Germany and went through the German education system, studying industrial engineering.

The researcher's own lived experience not only motivated him to engage in this study in search of an explanation of experiences, but also put him in the position of an 'insider' and raised theoretical sensitivity. Familiarity of 'meaning' and closeness to the field of investigation also allowed the researcher to understand and consequently interpret experiences interviewees reported on. Caution though was required to ensure the researcher kept an open mind and was honest with himself and to distinguish between his own lived experiences and the ones reported in the data – without this distinction, there would not be a grounded theory (Glaser, 1992).

4.5 Quality Considerations

One issue in qualitative research is the risk that the derived theory is *"just plain wrong"* (Miles & Hubermann, 1994, p. 2) although traditional notions of reliability and validity do not necessarily apply to qualitative interpretive studies (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Scholars including Walsham (1995), Klein and Myers (1999) and Myers (2009) suggested guidelines for qualitative interpretive research, and Urquhart et al. (2010) for grounded theory studies specifically. These of course cannot be applied mechanistically, or *a la carte* (Klein & Myers, 1999) for it is *"the researcher* [that] *has to choose what to say depending upon the audience and the story that he or she wants to tell"* (Klein & Myers, 1999, p. 78).

Table 4-3 provides an overview of the principles and guidelines adapted from Walsham (1995), Klein and Myers (1999) and Urquhart, Lehman and Myers (2010) applied in this study, while the following elaborates on each in greater depth.

Guideline	Description
Chain of Evidence	Documented and traceable process of how the study reached conclusions detailing the procedures of data generation, data management, data analysis and presentation of findings.
Contextualisation	Requires critical reflection of the social and historical background of the research setting, so that the intended audience can see how the current situation under investigation emerged.
Interaction Between the Researchers and the Subjects	Requires critical reflection on how the research materials [or 'data'] were socially constructed through the interaction between the researchers and participants.
Abstraction and Generalisation	Requires the ideographic details revealed by the data interpretation through the application of principles such as contextualization to theoretical, general concepts that describe the nature of human meaning. Urquhart et al. (, 2010) further detail:
Iterative Conceptualisation	*This guideline suggests that researchers should increase the level of abstraction and relate categories to each other through a process of iterative conceptualization. In grounded theory, this is done using theoretical coding. The relationships between categories can be of many different types, not just causal. Theoretical coding contributes to an understanding of relationships between the concepts or factors of a theory. Theoretical memos are also very important to the development of theoretical coding and the whole process of iterative conceptualization.*
Scaling up	*This guideline suggests how a researcher might counter what is said to be a common problem in grounded theory viz. the production of a low level theory, which is then hard to relate to the broader literature. Scaling up is the process of grouping higher-level categories into broader themes. Scaling up contributes to the generalizability of the theory.*
Theoretical Integration	*This guideline helps the researcher deal with what we think is an obligation of the grounded theorist – theoretical integration. Theoretical integration means relating the theory to other theories in the same or similar field. It is the process of comparing the substantive theory generated with other, previously developed, theories. This principle contributes to theoretical integration in the discipline and could help in the generation of formal theories.*
Dialogical Reasoning	Requires sensitivity to possible contradictions between the theoretical preconceptions guiding the research design of actual findings ['the story which the data tell'] with subsequent cycles of revision.
Multiple Interpretations	Requires sensitivity to possible differences in interpretations among the participants as are typically expressed in multiple narratives or stories of the same sequence of events under study. Similar to multiple witness accounts even if all tell it as they saw it.
Suspicion	Requires sensitivity to possible 'biases' and systematic 'distortions' in the narratives collected from the participants.

Table 4-3: Adopted Quality Criteria for Qualitative Research

Chain of Evidence: First is providing a chain of evidence (Walsham, 1995). This study provides a well-documented, transparent and traceable process from data generation [Chapter 3] to data analysis [Chapter 4] to the presentation of findings [Chapters 6 and 7]. The process of data generation explicitly outlines the interview process framed in the dramaturgical model of qualitative interviewing (Myers & Newman, 2007) as well as the adopted selective and theoretical sampling strategy [Chapter 3], the latter being a specific guideline to grounded theory studies (Urquhart, et al., 2010). In addition all interviews were audio-recoded and transcribed verbatim, which *"provides a full-description of what was being said"* (Walsham, 1995, p. 78) and thus allows traceability of the study's findings back to its empirical grounding. NVivo was utilised to support the management of the large amount of qualitative data during the early stages of this study.

In respect to data analysis grounded theory on its own provides robust procedures for generating theory (Glaser, 1978; Charmaz, 2001; Fernandez, et al., 2002; Fendt & Sachs, 2008; Myers, 2009) as outlined in earlier sections of this chapter. The demonstration of the application of these is highlighted as critical (Urquhart, et al., 2010), Figure 4-4 [Illustration Coding Process] provides an illustration thereof. In addition to that, evidence of the theoretical constructs presented in this study is underlined by exemplary quotes interwoven in the presentation of the theory and vignettes in Chapter 6 and 7.

Lastly, the researcher provides reflections on the selected research approach and amendments if any at the end of each respective chapter. The interested reader may take note of these to better comprehend the process and decisions taken by the researcher.

Contextualisation: Second is contextualization. Klein and Myers (Klein & Myers, 1999) suggest a critical reflection on the research setting. This is of particular importance since within the interpretive paradigm organisations are seen as dynamic and constantly changing (Klein & Myers, 1999). Thus the generated data may be influenced by the location the reported GBTP is situated in and to be described.

Chapter 5 on 'Research Scene' not only characterises the interviewees and the GBTPs they reported on but also provides an overview of the data sample and depicts contextual variables to GTBPs discovered in this study.

Interaction Between the Researcher and the Subject: Third is the interaction between the researcher and the subject (Klein & Myers, 1999), more precisely how the researcher and the interviewees jointly construct data. This aspect was explicitly detailed in Chapter 3, section 'The Interview Process as a Dramaturgical Model' where the researcher or interviewer is at times being the actor when asking questions, while being the audience when carefully listening to the interviewees response. The interaction between interviewee and interviewer at the same time allowed the interviewees to hypothesise also. Hypotheses based on the interviewees experience were noted as they inspired but did not build the empirical grounding.

Another aspect to be noted is that the interaction with interviewees improved the researchers understanding of the substantive area under investigation and extended his own subject matter expertise by learning from the experience of others. Trauth (1997) reported similar findings and states that the improved understanding challenged her own assumptions.

Abstraction and Generalisation: Fourth is the principle of abstraction and generalization. Generalisable findings present *"ideas and concepts that apply to multiple situations"* (Klein & Myers, 1999, p. 75). In this study, the derived results are expected to be applicable to any organisation operating or being situated in a culturally diverse environment and not limited to GBTPs. Aspects catering for the generalisation of findings in grounded theory studies are iterative contextualisation, theoretical sampling, scaling-up as well as theoretical integration (Urquhart, et al., 2010) next to the study's empirical grounding, though caution is required to carefully relate the research context [see 'Contextualization'] to the resulting and generalisable theory to build the bridge between the specific and the generalisable.

In practice, this was applied in the first stage by omitting specifics similar to the example by Urquhart et al. wherein *"instead of talking about the strategies used by analysts when talking to their clients, one could talk about the strategies used by professionals when dealing with their clients"* (Urquhart, et al., 2010, p. 372). In this study, the derived theoretical model of the construct of culture in GBTPs was the theoretical model of the construct of culture [Chapter 6]. Likewise, the processual model of the process to manage culture in GBTPs is referred to as the process to manage culture [Chapter 7]. In the second-stage, findings grounded in empirical data were discussed in the light of supporting as well as challenging the literature and also

contributed to the theoretical integration (Urquhart, et al., 2010), which also raises the theoretical level and sharpens the construct definition (Eisenhardt, 1989).

Next to the rigorous application of methodological procedures, it was the empirical grounding that allowed the general findings beyond the substantive domain of this study. The accumulation of thirty-two significant individual interviewees reporting on their lived experience of working on GBTPs provided insights from multiple different perspectives across organisational boundaries. Eisenhardt (1989) argues for such unique data per case and generalised patterns across cases in case study research. Moreover, given all interviewees had similar professional experiences, the likelihood of important issues being omitted was lessened given the multiplicity of viewpoints as well as contexts they reported on.

Dialogical Reasoning: Fifth, dialogical reasoning (Klein & Myers, 1999) ensures that the researchers sensitivity to distinguish between theoretical preconceptions that may influence the research and *"the story that data tells"* (Klein & Myers, 1999, p. 72) are not confounded. The grounded theory method, particularly the 'Glaserian' school of thought allows this by delaying the core of the literature review until theory is discovered so as to avoid preconceptions imposed by other theories. In addition, the researchers substantive experience in the area under investigation including associated benefits and risks are stated at the outset of the study.

Multiple Interpretations: Sixth, sensitivity to multiple interpretations of circumstances, alternative explanations is required (Klein & Myers, 1999). This study, by having a diverse data sample, in terms of the interviewees' cultural background and the GBTPs they reported on, provided, on one hand, a wide breadth of examples, while on the other hand they had multiple viewpoints and thus multiple interpretations of specific situations. The different interpretations of circumstances allowed insights from multiple perspectives on how specific situation are perceived, and how culture is interpreted and dealt with differently.

At a later stage of the study instances where lived experience reported on by the interviewee was recognised as different from the core findings triggered the researcher to instantly make further investigations into these. Klein and Myers (1999) highlight that it is not mandatory to have conflicting interpretations present,

but illustrating conflicting interpretations not only shows the interested reader the depth of inquiry and provides insights to practice but also probes the findings beneath the surface. It is thereby to be noted that this study did not employ a theoretical lens.

In addition, the findings were crosschecked and challenged by inviting key interviewees to comment on preliminary research findings (Myers, 2009). Some interviewees reviewed the interview transcript confirming the conversation. In addition informal conversations as well as feedback on presentations of research findings in both academic and practitioner outlets added value to the process of refining the emerging theory. These activities helped to resolve conflicting interpretations and confirm the study's conclusions (Klein & Myers, 1999).

Suspicion: Seventh, the principle of suspicion, is of the research being sensitive to sources of potential bias but also to the data generated in the interviews (Klein & Myers, 1999). This study dealt with suspicion by the juxtaposition of alternative views, by constantly comparing [CCA] statements reported by interviewees during the interview rather than taking them for granted. Interviewees were encouraged to illustrate their lived experience by contextualising them and providing details. Theoretical sampling of interviewees further played a critical role ensuring the sourcing of interviewees that could contribute with their lived experience and were able to provide multiple examples of how they experienced and dealt with culture. Nevertheless, it is not clear as to what extent *"socially created distortions"* (Klein & Myers, 1999, p. 77) affected the interviewees' responses during the interviews, for after all, a researcher in interpretive research is reporting his *"interpretations of other people's interpretations"* (Walsham, 1995, p. 78).

As repeatedly noted, the researchers' substantial experience in the area under investigation benefited greatly in understanding the field, engaging with interviewees as an insider and asking the 'right' questions at the 'right' time.

A point is to be made that the researcher solely coded all data, as he was the person who knew best about the context of this study. As Pratt states *"having someone else code your data does not make it necessarily valid"* (Pratt, 2009, p. 859) particularly if this person does not know anything about the data.

In summary, the application of these guidelines to ensure quality research are seen as an integrated entity rather than isolated, as many of them have interdependencies (Klein & Myers, 1999). These guidelines were to raise the rigor and consequently the quality of this study, not to mention the extent of the theory developed.

4.6 Reflections on the Grounded Theory Data Analysis

The chapter was set to describe and illustrate the application of the 'Glaserian' grounded theory procedures in the context of this study as well as to introduce and discuss the quality considerations taken into account.

The analytical techniques and guidelines elaborated on in this chapter guided the researcher's journey of discovering theory. The three stages of coding, constant comparative analysis, and memo writing comprised the core of the grounded theory data analysis. Data analysis progressed from open coding, which was to discover concepts and categories to the selective coding, and revolved around the two core categories discovered as basic social process and densify these. Finally it was the theoretical coding that integrated the categories in the basic social process and explained their relationships. However, since this chapter provides a simplified description of the method and its application in this study the interested reader may consider Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Glaser (1978, 1998) for further detail.

In practice the application of the analytical techniques and guidelines provided by grounded theory were experienced as being far from a simple and straightforward mechanical application of coding procedures following a textbook, rather it was the engagement with the data which the researcher had to experience instead of just reading about it. As Glaser notes, grounded theory is only taught by 'doing it' (Glaser, 1998). It was for the researcher to work with the data, unfold concepts and categories, illuminate relationships between these and to continuously challenge these and aggregate them to a conceptual level abstract of time, people and place (Glaser, 2002). Writing memos and constant comparative analysis was of great benefit.

In retrospect, the 'Glaserian' grounded theory allowed the researcher to discover theory from the data without being influenced by preconceived concepts or themes. However the process of data analysis itself was experienced as time consuming and required multiple iterative cycles of coding until theoretical saturation was reached. It required the researcher to trust in his data, and be patient but also to remain open and responsive avoiding any temptation that might influence the discovery of theory such as personal bias or extant literature. Or as Glaser states *"significant theoretical contributions come with growth and maturity in the data, and much of this is outside the analyst's* [researchers] *awareness until preconscious processing becomes conscious"* (Glaser & Holton, 2004, p. 20).

The following chapter provides insights into the research scene of this study before the subsequent chapters outline this study's findings.

Chapter 5: Research Scene

> *Qualitative research is context-bound. This means that the researchers have to be sensitive to the context of the research and immerse themselves in the setting and situation.*
>
> -- Immy Holloway (1997, p. 5)

This chapter describes the research scene of this study, which is composed of the research context and the perspectives taken in the study. The research context is Global Business Transformation Projects [GBTPs], which have particular contextual variables from the perspective of the senior management practitioners. The following sections first characterise GBTPs, second elaborate on the discovered contextual variables to GBTP and third characterise senior management practitioners. This chapter then concludes with overview of the unique data sample that forms the empirical basis of this study.

5.1 The Context: Global Business Transformation Projects

"Transformation functions variously as a description of something that has happened, as a claim that something has been achieved, and as promise or an aspiration about what might have been achieved" (Tosey & Robinson, 2002, p. 100)

The research context of this study is Global Business Transformation Projects [GBTPs]. A GBTP is understood as a transnational project or initiative an organisation undergoes that includes the following properties: it is a temporal

construct composed of multiple projects and their associated sub-projects, which span several geographically dispersed locations, time zones and cultures, and is initiated to deliver predetermined objectives. All GBTPs have a defined start and an end, and from an organisational perspective, they can be seen as a time-bound activity of the initiating organisation (Andersen, 2008) established for a purpose. In respect to size, GBTPs as understood in this study are 'large-scale' projects involving 100-300 people and scheduled between 3-5 years (Yourdon, 2004).

In contrast to a 'traditional' project, GBTPs imply fundamental and complex change (Gouillart & Kelly, 1995), and are also referred to as compact revolutions (Gersick, 1991), revolutionary change (Venkatraman, 1994) or radical change (Eriksen, 2008). This includes behavioural change (Blumenthal & Haspeslagh, 1994) which can have a profound long-term impact on the organisations' value chain, capabilities, processes, performance, and relationships to external partners as well as to how it operates in its constantly changing environment (Moreton, 1995). A transformation results in a redesign the organizations architecture (Morgan & Page, 2008), new situation of *"qualitative difference from what existed before"* (Tosey & Robinson, 2002, p. 102). Also, as the majority of business relies on information technology as a key resource widely prescribed to attain competitive advantage (Bharadwaj, 2000) information technology is reported to play a critical role in transforming business (Dehning, et al., 2003). GBTPs often include enormous investments in technology, information systems or are enabled by IT (Venkatraman, 1994). In short, GBTPs are an instantiation to accomplish the organisational transformations by transforming behaviour, processes, technology and cultures.

The qualifier 'global' is used to stress the internationality and thus inherent cultural diversity of the GBTPs researched. This diversity consists of the involvement of individuals with a variety of cultural backgrounds, experiences, and expertise as well as variable organisational association, with participants being attached to different divisions, subsidiaries or engaged external parties. From an organisational perspective, GBTPs may span across geographical location, time zones and cultures as well as organisational entities. This distinguishes GBTPs from 'traditional' projects, which are mainly on an intra-site level (Evaristo & van Fenema, 1999). Overall the qualifier 'global accounts' provides for another layer of

complexity, which aggravates the management of GBTP, particularly in dealing with culture.

The organisations undertaking GBTPs are generally large enterprises irrespective of organisational type and may be a multinational, international, global or transnational company (Bartlett & Goshal, 2002) operating in multiple countries. They expect the transformations to: improve performance, reduce cost, deal with a crisis, complete or integrate merger or assist by their globalisation (Meaney & Pung, 2008) in order to gain or remain in a competitive position (Dehning, et al., 2003). GBTPs are initiated for goals that are beyond the organisations day-to-day operation (Miller, Fields, Ashish, & Ortiz, 2000). Drivers of GBTPs include the changing environmental factors (Romanelli & Tushman, 1994), changing markets condition and government regulations (Walker, 2007) as well as customer demand and satisfaction (Ashurst & Hodges, 2010) and the organization need to grow and expand its market share (Rouse, 2005). Examples of GBTPs reported in recent literature include the human resources transformation of Shell (Houlder, Workurka, & Guenther, 2011), Vodafone's creation of a new operating model (Kresak et al., 2011), the lean transformation of Mercedes-Benz (Follmann, Laack, Schuett, & Uhl, 2012), or the IT enabled business transformation of the Commonwealth Bank of Australia (Thorogood, et al., 2011).

Project types covered by this study's understanding of GBTPs include: mergers and acquisitions, improvement programs, enterprise-wide organisational restructuring as well as IT projects such as the implementation of information systems but also any initiatives resulting in large-scale change. These can be in the form of organisation wide restructuring but also the implementation of an accounting system as both result in a change of behaviour, processes, required capabilities and working environment. All GBTPs reported on by senior management practitioners sharing their lived experience over the course of this study were transformative, culturally diverse, and IT was either present in the foreground or background.

An example of a GBTP reported on by interviewees in this study was a global business transformation and ERP system implementation [GBTP Resources 1][21] with the objective to simplify and align business processes to increase performance. This

[21] Further details to [GBTP Resources 1] can be found in the vignettes presented in Chapter 6 and 7

GBTP spans across four continents and five time zones with a maximum of nine hours time difference between the project headquarters and the three pilot sites. At its initiation it had sixty-seven project team members from across twelve different countries natively speaking seven different languages.

The section in this chapter labelled ‘Overview of GBTPs reported on by Senior Management Practitioners’ particularly Table 5-1 provides an overview of the GBTPs senior management practitioners reported on. In Chapters 6 and 7, vignettes further detail selected GBTPs.

GBTPs are studied because of their importance to organisations, but at the same time, have a high failure rate highlighting their relevance to practice. Moreover, the core focus of this study is culture which is an important aspect of GBTPs as transformations change culture, organizational culture (Kotter, 1996). GBTPs are of strategic importance to organisations, and the process of transforming organisations has gained vital importance in business, particularly in times of crisis. Such transformations are when organisations invest in organisational restructuring, cross-functional performance improvements and value-chain optimisation (Capgemini, 2009). However, two-thirds of all business transformations are reported to fail (Meaney & Pung, 2008; Ashurst & Hodges, 2010). In particular, large-scale transformations are prone to failure given their complexity in size of industry and time span of the initiative (Dehning, et al., 2003). Culture and human aspects are suggested to be central to business transformations (Capgemini, 2009) and successful transformations are reported paying attention to 'people issues' (Keller, et al., 2011). In addition, GBTPs are researchable in the sense that they are accessible by interviewing key personnel to understand what culture is and how it is to be dealt with, which is the aim of this study. The applied strategy for data generation of interview research thereby allowed the researcher to gain insights to multiple GBTPs of various scope, contexts and industries from the perspective of senior management practitioners.

The next section details the discovered contextual variables salient to GBTPs.

5.2 Contextual Variables to Global Business Transformation Projects

The contextual variables to GBTP discovered in this study provide the means of describing the environment that GBTPs are situated in and influenced by. This is of particular importance as context is reported to shape the conceptualisation of culture (Sackmann & Phillips, 2004). Also culture recognises the importance of context and local knowledge (Stephens, 2012).

Frameworks or models for information systems research suggest an external, organisational and information systems environment (Ives, Hamilton, & Davis, 1980). Ein-Dor, Segev and Orgad (1993) similarly proposed a framework for global information systems research which, along with an environmental, structural, behavioral and procedural component also contains a cultural component of national culture. This study simplifies the classification to contextual variables for two reasons. First, the three contextual variables discovered were the only points salient to every reported GBTPs. Second, the scope of this study was culture and not the investigation and conceptualisation of contextual variables to GBTPs. The contextual variables to GBTPs salient in the data were geographically dispersed locations, languages and information technology and each is elaborated on in the sub-sections that follow.

5.2.1 Geographically Dispersed Locations

GBTPs are likely to span across multiple geographically dispersed locations. This, in turn, implies the existence of different time zones, cultures and languages. Mapping the geographically dispersed locations of any GBTP reported on by interviewees onto a world map will result in a visualisation similar to the route map of an international airline. Figure 5-1 provides an illustration of such a representation, which is further detailed in Chapter 6 vignette [GBTP Resources 1]. The headquarters of this GBTP was Asia, with key organisational entities in Europe, the USA, South America, Africa and Australia.

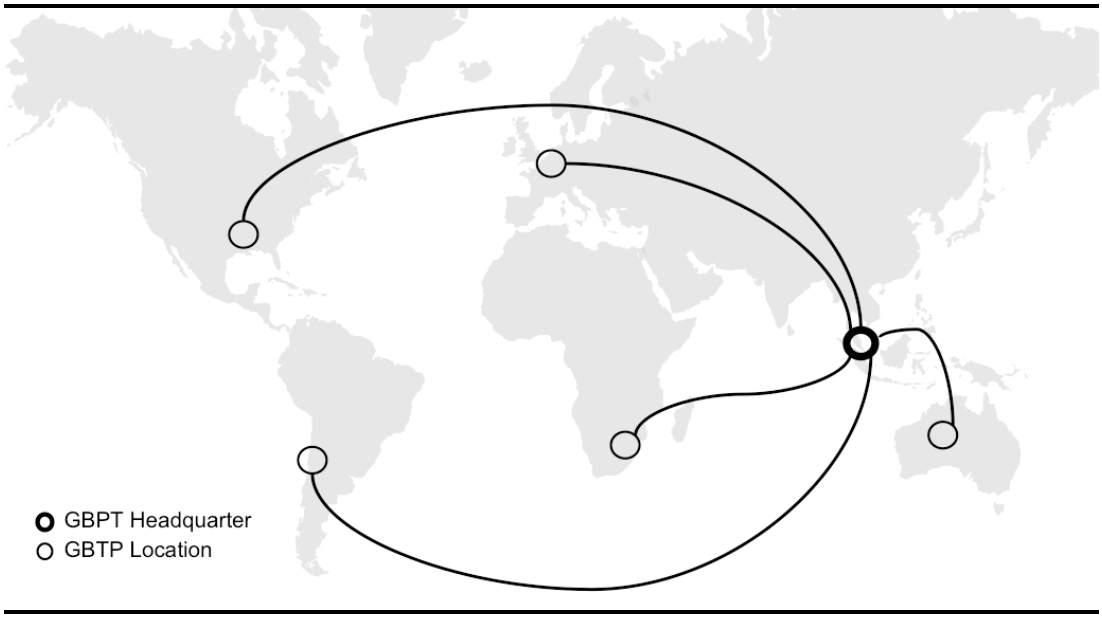

Figure 5-1: Geographically Dispersed Locations [GBTP Resources 1]

The main implications of the aspect of geographically dispersed locations prominent in the lived experience of senior management practitioners are the observed cultural differences between the cultures in place, language differences, and limitations in the overlapping working hours with the headquarters. The overlapping working hours available are determined by the different time zones, differences in the workweek or norms specific to the location. The effects of these are further explained below.

Time Zones: Different time zones may dramatically reduce the overlapping working hours in which parties involved in a GBTP can interact, either in person or virtually. Time zone differences are reported as a constraint to effective communication (Anantatmula & Thomas, 2010). They range from one hour up to twenty-three hours in an extreme case such as between Samoa [GMT −11] and New Zealand [GMT +12]. However even a relatively 'small' time difference of just one hour can make a significant difference to the project work by reducing the overlapping time by four hours per day (Grinter, Herbsleb, & Perry, 1999). In addition, spontaneous conversations in such an environment may be difficult to facilitate (Metiu, 2006). Examples of GBTPs reported in this study in which time zones were a significant contextual variable include [GBTP Consumer 8] which had a maximum of 7 hours time difference across three time zones, and [GBTP

Resources 1] which, in its initial phase, had to accommodate a maximum of nine hours time difference across five time zones.

Workweek: Time zone differences may be amplified if the GBPT embraces geographical locations in Middle Eastern countries where the workweek lasts from Saturday to Wednesday, with the weekend falling on Thursday and Friday compared to Saturday and Sunday in non-Middle East countries. This workweek mismatch may add complexity to the GBTP and requires flexibility as one interviewee illustrated.

> *"When we* [Professional Service Firm 'name', Malaysia] *were doing a project there* [Middle East] *and working with a Malaysian team, it was very hard to synchronize the work because work is going on in Malaysia Monday to Fridays but in the Middle East you cannot expect the client to be on conference calls on a Friday for example. But our team members who are based there would be available for those calls. So in effect they kind of almost worked seven days a week because they needed to adjust in order to engage with their Malaysian colleagues in this part of the world and then the Middle Eastern colleagues in that part of the world."* [PSF-17]

Norms: In addition to the aspects of time zone and workweek norms of the geographically dispersed locations come into play in GBTPs. These include festival days, siesta times, regional patterns in working hours, and also the holidays and customs of the dominant religions present. For instance, different associations exist of working hours in different cultural environments as illustrated in the following example of a professional services firm with offices in Dubai [United Arab Emirates] and Johannesburg [South Africa].

> *"In the Dubai office the culture, the national culture is predominantly Spanish as most of the consultants are Spanish and that drives the way the part of the organization based in Dubai operates. Again very long hours, very inefficient, a lot of things on the side, on Friday evening you do not leave at 5pm you stay till 10pm even though you have nothing to do. Now comparing this to the Johannesburg office where the leadership is more Anglo-Saxon plus the national culture of South Africa is Anglo-Saxon in fact in terms of the business world. It has the effect that we start working much earlier than in the Dubai office, at 8:30am everybody is working and we try to finish as soon as possible as well. You know 5pm everybody tries to finish their work and go home. This would be actually two quite distinct national cultures within the same organization."* [PSF-12]

Another interviewee highlighted the alignment of working hours to the daylight working on a project in Sweden during winter.

> *"My very first overseas project was actually in Sweden in winter. One very obvious thing to me was the working hours. They started much earlier and they finished earlier because they tried to get a bit of daylight."* [PSF-17]

Norms in this study also include aspects of religion, which is reported next to language as being one of the most distinctive aspects to culture (Gomez-Mejia & Palich, 1997). Religion, in the context of GBTPs, was discovered to determine the available working hours and thus interaction time. An interviewee illustrated this in an example of a project in which he was working on which was located in the Middle East.

> *"A project in Saudi Arabia* [..] *had to take into account Ramadan in the planning of the days as you had to take into account that Muslims pray five times per day and you could not schedule meetings in these particular times, absolutely."* [PSF-12]

Another interviewee further highlighted how religion needs to be factored into project planning.

> *"Let's use the Malaysian example. Because we have the Muslims here you need to be conscious that if you are setting meetings on a Friday or if you want to run a workshop you must factor in the Friday prayers. So something like a two and half hour lunch break on Fridays is something that must be taken into account in Muslim countries. That is something that we do not have to go to other countries to already experience, for there is that cultural sensitivity here already. The Chinese and Indians are fine to work through Friday lunchtime but you cannot do that for the Muslims."* [PSF-17]

These aspects of working hours and their implications discovered in this study are similar to those found in the work of Espinosa and Carmel (2003). They distinguish the types of working across 'time differences' in different time zones, differences in the: weekend [business days], holiday [public holidays, religious holidays], lunch and other break hours [working hours specific to regions or states differ] as well as the workday [working hours, start and ending time of the workday]. Both workday and workweek differences often have a negative influence on global work (Sarker & Sahay, 2004).

Another aspect highlighted by the interviewees refers to the budget required to involve and engage with local project members or affected organisational units located away from the GPTPs headquarters as a result of the GBTPs geographically dispersed locations. In particular, the travel budget was suggested to be a significant component as illustrated by an interviewee working for a professional service firm.

> *"In a multinational project like for example* [GBTP Consumer 7]*, there is a huge amount for traveling, a huge amount for international meetings, there are people from all over the world have to fly in, this is first of all time consuming for your budget in terms of man hours but also in terms of travel cost. At* [GBTP Consumer 7] *it has been more than twenty-five or twenty-eight per cent of the budget only for travel."* [PSF-01]

The literature indicates also that geographically dispersed locations add complexity to the coordination effort and restrict the synchronous interaction of the project team (Munkvold & Zigurs, 2007). At the same time, work across geographically dispersed locations becomes increasingly necessary and popular (Szabo & Fischlmayr, 2007).

Overall, geographically dispersed locations greatly determine the GBTPs environment and these require an individual assessment to understand their implications to the specific GBTP. Effects stem from overlapping working time, time zone differences, different workweeks or working norms to the locations but also determine budget required for travel or the need to accommodate the native languages spoken. The aspect of language is closely related to the geographically dispersed locations of GBTPs as detailed in the following sub-section.

5.2.2 Language

The *"language we speak largely determines our way of thinking, as distinct from merely expressing it"* (Benjamin Whorf in Lewis, 2005, p. 8). Language is often specific to a community, a country or a region, where common words may have slightly different meanings in different dialects. Language is the means to communicate within the GBTP and its effect is essential to understand and be understood. As stated by one interviewee:

> *"Language is the first barrier to getting to know people and getting to know the culture and being able to become effective in operating in those environments."* [GM-08]

Individuals involved in GBTPs are often native in a language, which is not necessarily the same as the common project language. Their native language is dependent on the their cultural background and region of country from which they come.

The research data suggested that the aspects of language proficiency and fluency in language idioms, and the associated shared meaning of words are core to GBTP. These aspects are elaborated below.

Proficiency: The proficiency in the common project language is suggested as essential to any kind of project interaction. This applies particularly when the project language is other than the language in which involved parties are native speakers. An interviewee illustrated the issues involved if there is insufficient proficiency in the common and official project language.

> *"People cannot express themselves clearly, so their ideas may not be reflected or they may misunderstand some of the topics and if that language barrier is not taken care of that can really impact the result and benefit of such an initiative."* [PSF-15]

Language proficiency is reported as a sensitive issue and any variation to the agreed project language among involved parties needs to be recognised and appropriately accommodated, as another interviewee highlighted.

> *"When doing a global project you have to be very sensitive to language. So for example with the chemical example* [GBPT Chemicals 1] *we had some people from Europe who came over* [to the United States] *and they spoke English we thought quite well when we first met them but then over time we realized that while their English was good, it was not their mother tongue. And we have to pay particular attention to make sure that they fully understood what we were saying and we meant and vice versa."* [PSF-11]

On the other hand, misunderstandings may arise in instances where individuals are not proficient in the project language and thus do not have the ability to communicate appropriately in a language not their main language, as an interviewee highlighted.

> *"There is a risk, a lot of people on the project and in workshops that cannot actually follow the argument and therefore struggle to follow the line of the debate [..] you will get representatives coming to a workshop which*

> *might have very good ideas but because it is being done in their second language, they do not necessarily contribute information"* [PSF-14]

She further remarked

> *"The impact of that is that you get a solution that is not necessarily of quality because the language has inhibited people to contribute."* [PSF-14]

Being proficient in the local language is an asset as it assists in building relationships with co-workers and accessing information. An interviewee commented that being conversant in Mandarin benefited her while working in Beijing, China, in comparison to her superior who was not conversant in Mandarin.

> *"Obviously it is quite positive if you speak the language, it is one of the main things that you should have if you work in China even if they spoke English quite well. I always had the impression that my boss was talking in English to them; he didn't have any real impression of what was going on. But I spoke Chinese and I could get more information from them than he [the boss] did."* [PSF-08]

Another interviewee highlighted that even speaking a few words in the local language facilitates the local engagement, as another interviewee states.

> *"In Philippines if you can only say two, three things in Tagalog, they will smile, they will be so happy"* [GM-01]

The vignette 'Adaption to Environment' [GBTP Automotive 1] in Chapter 7 further illustrates how shifting from English to French, which was the local language in that site of the GBTP, proved beneficial to the engagement with the French counterparts of the GBTP.

Idioms: Next to the proficiency in the project language, and the context dependent interpretation, language idioms are another aspect that is important in a GBTP. The meaning of words or phrases and their interpretation can differ depending on the country or culture in place potentially leading to misunderstandings. One example is the lights that control traffic as illustrated below.

> *"Cultural differences and the understanding between uses of language and terminology. A very simple example is just someone trying to explain let's say traffic lights. In one country it is a traffic light, in another one it is a signal, another country it might be even called the robot. So there are a lot of language terminology barriers between different countries."* [PSF-17]

This idiomatic expression may apply to organisation, or project- specific terms. In the same way that different words are used to express similar meanings, a single

word may have different meanings associated with it (Miller, et al., 2000). For example, many idiomatic expressions of the American English are impenetrable to non-natives, such as ‘bite the bullet’ which means making a difficult decision.

Overall, language was discovered of being important to GBTPs. Moreover language is an indicator of culture (Gomez-Mejia & Palich, 1997). Thereby is to be noted that language is not identical with national culture, for example someone native in Spanish is not isomorphic to Spain. Also language is identified as primary cultural challenge in global projects (Eberlein, 2008). An appropriate proficiency and awareness of the local language and project terminology is desirable to communicate effectively in any kind of interaction with team members, as an interviewee emphasised.

> *"Be sensitive to the fluency with which all team members speak that language."* [PSF-11]

Language can enable GBTPs if appropriate proficiency is achieved, but language constrains GBTPs if there is inadequate proficiency, thus raising difficulties in team interaction and the risk of misunderstanding. The literature indicates that an inadequate proficiency of the project language hinders the knowledge transfer in projects (Ford & Chan, 2003) and acts as a communication barrier (Sheu, Chae, & Yang, 2004). Data suggests that one strategy to augment a common understanding is the use of bi-lingual workshops, training, and translation services. The literature further adds that asynchronous written communication such as email allows involved parties not proficient in the project language time to interpret the information exchanged (McDonough, Kahn, & Griffin, 1999; Sosa, Eppinger, Pich, McKendrick, & Stout, 2002).

5.2.3 Information Technology

Information technology [IT] was an aspect that was hardly mentioned upfront by interviewees, however it was eventually discovered to play an integral role in every reported GBTP. This is also reported in the literature, as the majority of business relies on information technology (Bharadwaj, 2000) and IT plays a critical role in transforming business (Dehning, et al., 2003). Thus, it was imperative to understand the role of IT in GBTPs. IT was either manifested in the foreground, such

as in the implementation of Information Systems [IS] or in the background of operations by enabling communications or information transfer. In some instances, IT was discovered as 'the' driver and the determining factor of the GBTP, although many organisations disavowed this fact by labelling and promoting the GBTP either as a business-process transformation, a business-harmonisation or a business-reorganisation project despite it essentially being an IS implementation. An interviewee stressed the integral role of IT by pointing out that GBTPs were driven by IT, despite not necessarily being labelled as 'information technology'.

> *"I really wish that I could answer it differently but I do think that quite often, the driving factor is still technology."* [PSF-13]

As this study did not investigate the specifics of the involved IT whether being a system or application, IT is seen as a general theme similar to the one suggested by Robey and Azevedo (1994).

The role of IT in the GBTPs reported in this study is classified as 'IS Implementation', 'Pre IS Implementation' or 'IS Support'. Each of these terms is next discussed.

IS Implementation: 'IS Implementation' refers to the implementation of an information system. The implementation of an information system in the majority of cases involves a restructuring of organizational roles (Ash & Burn, 2003). In GBTP, this is generally through an Enterprise Resource Planning [ERP] system implementation. Nevertheless, the implementation of an information system is only one aspect of a GBTP, and the majority of global IS implementations are not to be construed as just an implementation of a new information system (Clark, et al., 2012). GBTPs which change the organisational processes and structures through the implementation of an Information System impact the organisational culture in place (Leidner, 2010) have been classified as 'IS implementation'.

Pre IS Implementation: 'Pre IS implementation' refers to GBTPs preparing an organisation to implement an information systems which involves changing the organisational structure, processes, and behaviours to meet the demands enforced by the market and the environment they are operating in. GBTPs classified as 'Pre IS Implementation' include process standardisation or harmonisation projects as well as the integration of organisational units. The distinction between 'IS Implementation'

and 'Pre IS Implementation' is made by the actual implementation of an information systems or preparation to do so.

IS Support: 'IS support' refers to those GBTPs which use IS to support the executing the GBTPs irrespective of whether the actual project involved the planning or implementation of a new IS. Independent their scope, including pre-, post-, or de-mergers, organisational restructuring, engineering & development initiatives, production management, and relocation or turn-around management IT was reported to support and or enable GBTPs. Moreover, reliable, fast, and collaborative information systems are critical to global projects as they allow for instant and accurate access to information particularly given the geographical dispersion of the project team (Damodara, 2000; Anantatmula & Thomas, 2010; Hinds, et al., 2011). This is of particular importance in a global environment such as a GBTP where technology might be appropriated differently depending upon the cultural context (Hinds, et al., 2011).

From a cultural perspective, IT plays a role in organisational culture change (Doherty & Doig, 2003). Also, IT is attributed to changes culture over time (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006). Walsham and Sahay (1999) stress that IT is perceived differently upon the culture inscribed features common in one society cannot be taken for granted in another society. Walsham and Sahay's (1999) study of the introduction in India of geographical information systems [GIS] show this cultural variability. They found that the GIS was designed on 'western' principles but the Indian cultural context of the display of space, decision processes and action affected the interpretation and appropriation of technology. Martinsons, Davison and Martinsons (2009) stress the importance of technology appropriation in different cultural environments. Their work shows there are differences in the IT appropriation of a IT enabled business process reengineering project across the United States, France, Sweden, China, Japan and Brazil and that these differences were predicted by the Hofstede's dimensions of culture. They conclude: *"technology transfers are more likely to succeed if it is understood how the donor and recipient context differs, and how those differences might influence the technology transfer"* (Martinsons, et al., 2009, p. 118). To investigate the appropriation of IT in different cultures involved in GBTP is beyond the scope of this study.

Overall, information technology is similar to the aspect of geographically dispersed locations inherent to GBTPs: though it is often not visible in the first instance, IT is central to GBTP. In turn, it is imperative to understand the role of IT in GBTPs because it first illustrates the importance of IT to GBTP and second reminds us that IT is general theme in GBTP, regardless of the specifics.

5.3 The Perspective: Senior Management Practitioners

The perspective taken in this study is the one of senior management practitioners. Their reported lived experience of working on GBTPs provides the empirical grounding for this study.

A senior management practitioner is *"a global manager* [who] *is set apart by more than a worn suitcase and a dog-eared passport*" (Green, Hassan, Immelt, Marks, & Meiland, 2003, p. 39). Senior management practitioners, as understood in this study, have a broad international, and thus, cross-cultural experience of working on or managing GBTPs. They generally hold a leadership position in a GBTP as well as in the organisations or professional services firms in which they work. In GBTPs they have a responsibility to manage and be accountable for an assigned area. Their responsibility includes assuring that required deliverables are produced in time, on cost, and are of good quality. The activities of senior management practitioners in GBTPs include ensuring adequate communication among all involved parties, and reporting to the program management, project steering committee, board of directors, and the organisations' stakeholders, identifying and mitigating potential risks, ensuring adequate resources with the required knowledge and experience for the GBTP and arbitration on conflicts arising and negotiating solutions.

From a cultural point, senior management practitioners take a key role in shaping the project culture, but also in simultaneously dealing with different cultures involved in the project. These cultures include: subcultures of the organisation, the cultures of the involved external organisations, the encountered national culture. Their role is to ensure knowledge is produced and diffused across project boundaries (Ajmal & Koskinen, 2008). A project manager takes *"a crucial role in creating a*

team culture that facilitates the development of project goals and group norms with respect to decision making, conflict resolution, and so on. In doing so, project managers often have to deal with several different cultures simultaneously" (Ajmal & Koskinen, 2008, p. 12).

Literature further suggests that project managers, as senior management practitioners, are expected to have a thorough understanding of complexities of GBTPs and their effect on the instantiated culture types (Ajmal & Koskinen, 2008). This includes adhering local cultural norms (Green, et al., 2003). In addition, they must be able to adapt their leadership style and manner of work conduct to the *"prevailing cultural values, legal and political issues, time-zone differences, and information systems"* (Anantatmula & Thomas, 2010, p. 68). This adaptation includes the communication of the GBTP's vision and goals to project members (Napier, Keil, & Tan, 2009) in a mode appropriate to the different parties involved (McDonough, et al., 1999). The senior management practitioners are also expected to maximize the potential of every project member (Richardson, 2005).

Examples of senior management practitioners reporting their lived experienced in this study are:

A project manager working for a professional service firm, having ten years of professional experience, seven of which were with professional service firms, who speaks seven languages and worked for an extended period in South Africa, Dubai, Czech Republic, the UK, Spain and El Salvador. [*Project Manager, Professional Service Firm* – PSF-12].

A program manger who worked in the aviation industry as head of strategy with nine years' professional experience, three of which were with a professional services firm, who speaks four languages and worked in Venezuela, Germany, Kuwait, El Salvador and Australia [*Project Manager, Aviation* – GM-06].

Other interviewees had similar diversity of roles, location and responsibilities.

Senior management practitioners were identified as being the best people to be able to report on a GBTP given their experience and involvement in such projects. Moreover, given their seniority, senior management practitioners were also expected to focus and thus report on the essentials, the 'big picture,' or in other words, the transformational aspects rather than pockets of operational details, or transactional

aspects when reporting their lived experience. Also, senior management practitioners were expected to have the 'bird-eye view' overseeing all aspects of a GBTP and their implications as Evaristo and Fenema (1999) attributed to program management. Senior management practitioners were either permanent employees of the organisation hosting the GBTP or temporarily attached to the GBTP working for professional service firms and providing services as consultants engaged to the GBTP.

The next section of this chapter provides an overview of this study's empirical grounding, and summarises the demographics of senior management practitioners reporting their lived experiences in this study as well as the GBTPs on which they reported.

5.4 Empirical Grounding

This section is to provide insights to the empirical grounding of this study but also show the significance, range, and richness of the data sample. First, an overview is provided, of the sixty-one GBTPs interviewees reported their lived experience. This is followed by descriptive characteristics of the thirty-two interviewees, senior management practitioner participating in this study.

Thirty-two interviews were conducted. These interviews lasted between 45 minutes and 120 minutes while the average length of an interview was sixty-nine minutes. This process resulted in more than 37 hours of audio recording, which translated to 786 pages of interview transcripts. Nine interviews were conducted in-person, and twenty-one via phone and two via videoconference.

5.4.1 Overview of GBTPs reported on by Senior Management Practitioners

The following section provides a summary of the sixty-one GBTPs senior management practitioners who participated in the study reported on. This section shows the range of GBTPs, which forms the basis for this study.

Table 5-1 first depicts an overview highlighting the GBTPs' project scope, diversity type, role of IT, region the GBTP is headquartered in and the role of the interviewee reporting on the GBTP. The remainder of this sub-section highlights the diversity of geography they are headquartered in, the industry sector GBTP reported on are situated in, and role of information technology in these GBTP.

#	GBTP	Scope	Diversity Type	Role of IT	Region [HQ]	Interviewee
1	GBTP Automotive 1	Joint Engineering & Development Project of two Automotive Companies	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-06]
2	GBTP Automotive 2	Harmonization of Logistic Processes	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-06]
3	GBTP Automotive 3	Post-merger Integration	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-06]
4	GBTP Automotive 4	Reengineering of Service and Aftersales	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-06]
5	GBTP Automotive 5	Quality Management	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[GM-10]
6	GBTP Automotive 6	Production Management	Global by Nation	IS Support	Africa	[GM-10]
7	GBTP Automotive 7	Production Relocation	Global by Nation	IS Support	Asia	[GM-01], [GM-10]
8	GBTP Automotive 8	Process Reengineering	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-06]
9	GBTP Aviation 1	Business Process Management	Truly Global	IS Support	Australia	[GM-07]
10	GBTP Aviation 2	Set-up of a 'new' Subsidiary	Truly Global	IS Support	Australia	[GM-06]
11	GBTP Aviation 3	Reorganization	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Middle East	[GM-06]
12	GBTP Aviation 4	Reorganization	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Europe	[GM-08]
13	GBTP Aviation 5	Process Improvement & Reorganization	Truly Global	IS Support	Latin America	[GM-06], [GM-08], [PSF-13]
14	GBTP Chemicals 1	Supply Chain Process Improvement	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[PSF-11]
15	GBTP Chemicals 2	Business Transformation - Supply Chain	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[PSF-04]
16	GBTP Chemicals 3	Business Process Management	Truly Global	Pre IS Implementation	Middle East	[PSF-06], [PSF-07]
17	GBTP Conglomerate 1	Process Management	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-04]
18	GBTP Consumer 1	Organizational Transformation towards Process Orientation	Global by Involvement	Pre IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-06], [PSF-07]
19	GBTP Consumer 2	BPM Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	North America	[GM-14]
20	GBTP Consumer 3	Global Process Innovation	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[GM-14]
21	GBTP Consumer 4	Global Business Transformation and Process Standardization	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-04], [PSF-05]
22	GBTP Consumer 5	Process Improvement	Truly Global	IS Implementation	North America	[PSF-13]
23	GBTP Consumer 6	Process Management	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[PSF-15]
24	GBTP Consumer 7	Process Management & ERP System Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Asia	[PSF-01]
25	GBTP Consumer 8	Global ERP System Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Latin America	[GM-08], [PSF-14]
26	GBTP Consumer 9	Post-acquisition Integration	Truly Global	IS Support	Latin America	[GM-08]
27	GBTP Electronics 1	Process Management	Truly Global	Pre IS Implementation	Asia	[PSF-06]

#	GBTP	Scope	Diversity Type	Role of IT	Region [HQ]	Interviewee
28	GBTP Electronics 2	IT Infrastructure Management	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-10]
29	GBTP Electronics 3	Global IT Restructuring	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-02]
30	GBTP Electronics 4	Process Management for Research and Development	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-02]
31	GBTP Energy 1	Engineering and Sourcing Initiative	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[GM-01]
32	GBTP Engineering 1	Process Improvement	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-15]
33	GBTP Engineering 2	Business Transformation & Process Improvement	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[PSF-15]
34	GBTP Engineering 3	Construction and Set-up of an [..] Plant	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Asia	[GM-13]
35	GBTP Financial Services 1	BPM Implementation & Process Improvement	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-07]
36	GBTP Financial Services 2	BPM Implementation	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-04]
37	GBTP Financial Services 3	Global ERP Systems Implementation & Set-up of BPM Governance	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-04], [PSF-13]
38	GBTP Financial Services 4	Organizational Transformation towards Process Orientation	Truly Global	Pre IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-06], [PSF-07]
39	GBTP Financial Services 5	Turnaround & Rescue Management	Global by Involvement	Pre IS Implementation	Africa	[PSF-12]
40	GBTP Financial Services 6	Global Business Transformation	Truly Global	Pre IS Implementation	Asia	[PSF-04]
41	GBTP Financial Services 7	Business Transformation & Process Improvement	Global by Involvement	Pre IS Implementation	Middle East	[PSF-04]
42	GBTP Government 1	Process Improvement	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-13]
43	GBTP Government 2	E-Government Strategy	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Africa	[GM-13]
44	GBTP Government 3	Enterprise Architecture & Business Process Management	Global by Involvement	IS Implementation	North America	[PSF-05]
45	GBTP Oil & Gas 1	Process Management	Truly Global	Pre IS Implementation	Asia	[PSF-01]
46	GBTP Oil & Gas 2	Global ERP System Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Africa	[PSF-05]
47	GBTP Pharma 1	Global ERP System Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Australia	[GM-09]
48	GBTP Pharma 2	Global IT Strategy	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-17]
49	GBTP Pharma 3	Global Enterprise Process Definition	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[PSF-11]
50	GBTP Resources 1	Global Business Transformation & ERP Systems Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Asia	[PSF-03], [PSF-05], [PSF-14], [GM-11], [GM-12]
51	GBTP Resources 2	Change & Process Improvement Initiative	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Australia	[PSF-09]

#	GBTP	Scope	Diversity Type	Role of IT	Region [HQ]	Interviewee
52	GBTP Resources 3	Change Management Program	Truly Global	IS Support	Australia	[GM-11]
53	GBTP Resources 4	Global ERP System Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	North America	[PSF-01]
54	GBTP Resources 5	ERP System Implementation	Global by Involvement	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-01]
55	GBTP Resources 6	Global ERP System Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Asia	[PSF-01]
56	GBTP Telecommunication 1	ERP System Implementation	Global by Nation	IS Implementation	Africa	[PSF-14]
57	GBTP Telecommunication 2	Global ERP System Implementation & Process Improvement	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-08]
58	GBTP Telecommunication 3	Alliance Strategy Development	Truly Global	IS Support	Middle East	[PSF-12]
59	GBTP Telecommunication 4	Turnaround Management	Global by Nation	IS Support	Africa	[PSF-12]
60	GBTP Telecommunication 5	Integration	Truly Global	IS Support	Asia	[PSF-17]
61	GBTP Transportation 1	Process Improvement	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-13]

Table 5-1: Overview of GBTPs reported on by Interviewees

Geography: Figure 5-2 illustrates the geographical diversity of the regions in which the GBTP were headquartered.

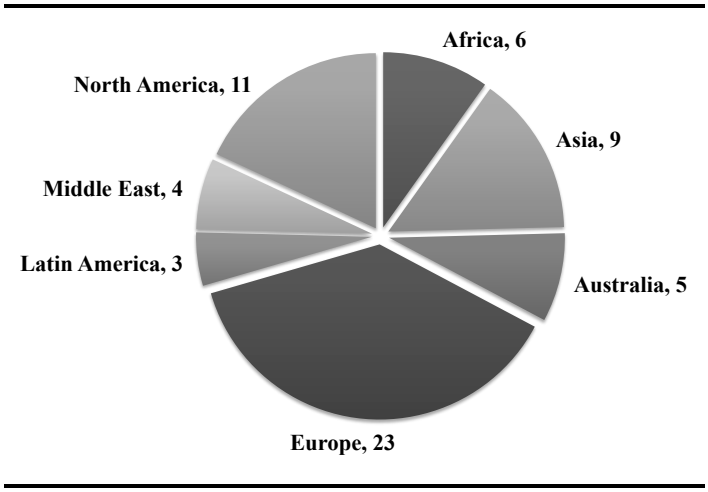

Figure 5-2: GBTPs Headquarters by Region

Industry Sectors: The range of industry sectors in which this study's GBTPs were situated in are shown in Figure 5-3.

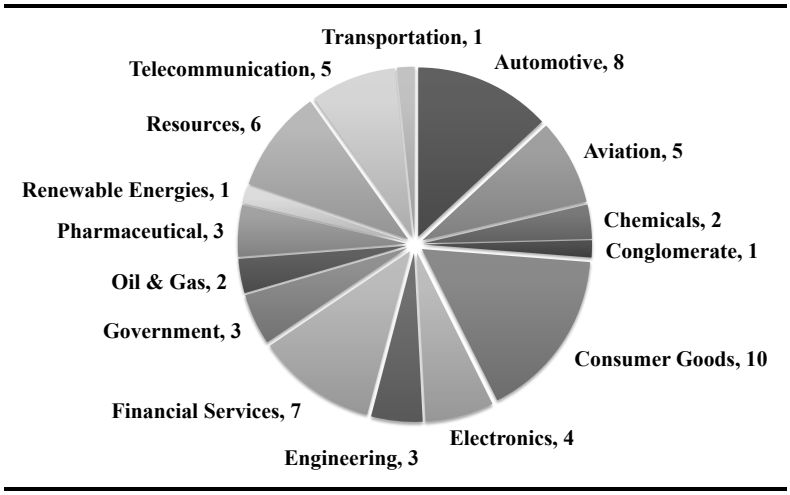

Figure 5-3: GBTPs Industry Sectors

Information Technology: In the reported GBTPs, the IT was either in the foreground being classified as an 'IS Implementation' [19 of them] or when in the background were IT was to support the GBTP. These are classified as 'IS support' [34 of them]. Some were to prepare for an IS implementation, and are classified as 'Pre IS Implementation' [8 of them]. This distribution is shown in Figure 5-4.

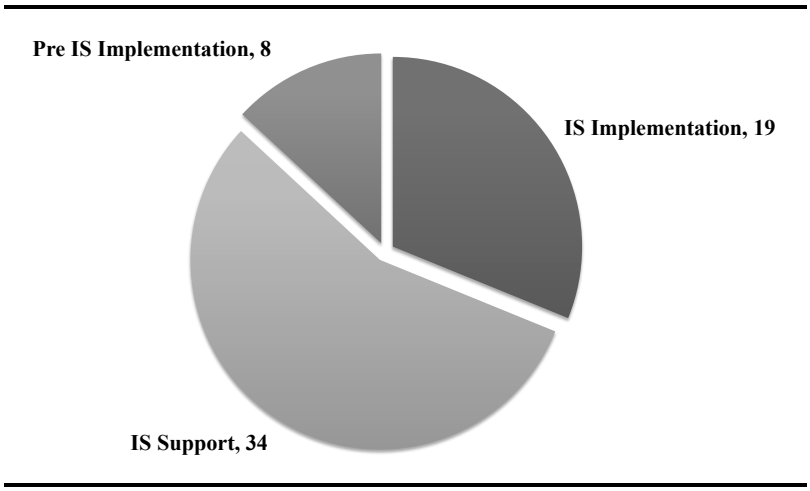

Figure 5-4: Role of Information Technology in GBTPs

This sub-section illustrated the variety of GBTPs, which were reported on by interviewees, allowing the interested reader to get a feeling for this study's research context. This study was not to assess or characterise GBTPs. The vignettes in Chapter 6 and 7 are to provide further insights and a more detailed characterisation of selected GBTPs reported on by interviewees.

5.4.2 Sample of Senior Management Practitioners

The following Table 5-2 provides demographic information on the thirty-two participating senior management practitioners.

#	ID	Industry	Position	Region	Countries worked in [> 1 year]	Professional experience	Age	Gender	Education	Languages [Converse]
1	PSF-01	Professional Service Firm	Partner	Europe	China, Germany	13	30 < 40	male	Master	English, German
2	PSF-02	Professional Service Firm	Senior Manager	Europe	Germany	13	30 < 40	male	Master	English, German
3	PSF-03	Professional Service Firm	Senior Manager	North America	Germany, US, Egypt, Saudi Arabia	12	40 < 50	male	Master	German, English, Egyptian Arabic
4	PSF-04	Professional Service Firm	Senior Manager	Europe	Austria, Germany	13	30 < 40	male	Master	English, French, German, Hungarian
5	PSF-05	Professional Service Firm	Partner	Europe	Germany, US	17	40 < 50	male	Master	English, French, German
6	GM-01	Renewable Energies	Manager	Europe	Brazil, Germany	3	30 < 40	male	Master	English, French, German, Spanish, Turkish
7	PSF-06	Professional Service Firm	Director	Europe	Germany	12	30 < 40	male	PhD	English, French, German
8	PSF-07	Professional Service Firm	Senior Manager	Europe	Germany, UK	15	40 < 50	male	PhD	English, German
9	PSF-08	Professional Service Firm	Senior Consultant	Europe	Bosnia, China, Germany	5	30 < 40	female	Master	Bosnian, French, German, Mandarin
10	GM-02	Renewable Energies	Manager	Europe	Brazil, Germany	6	< 30	male	Master	English, German, Portuguese, Spanish
11	GM-03	Automotive	Manager Logistics	Europe	Germany, South Africa	14	30 < 40	female	Master	English, German
12	GM-04	Automotive	Manager Engine Plant	Asia	Germany, Malaysia, Thailand, Indonesia	30	> 50	male	Bachelor	English, German
13	GM-05	Conglomerate	Head of Consulting	Asia	Germany, Swiss, Malaysia, Russia	16	40 < 50	male	Master	English, German, Italian, Russian
14	PSF-09	Professional Service Firm	Senior Manager	Australia	Australia	30	40 < 50	male	Master	English
15	GM-06	Aviation	Head of Customer Service	Australia	Australia, El Salvador, Germany, Kuwait, Spain, Venezuela	7	30 < 40	male	MBA	Bulgarian, English, German, Spanish,
16	GM-07	Aviation	Manager	Australia	Australia, South Africa, UK, Zimbabwe	26	40 < 50	male	Master	Afrikaans, English, French, Zulu
17	PSF-10	Professional Service Firm	Manager	Europe	Australia, Germany	12	30 < 40	male	PhD	English, German

Table 5-2: Demographic Overview Interviewees

#	ID	Industry	Position	Region	Countries worked in [> 1 year]	Professional experience	Age	Gender	Education	Languages [Converse]
18	GM-08	Consumer Goods	Manager	South America	Columbia, El Salvador, Sweden	12	30 < 40	male	MBA	Danish, English, Spanish, Swedish
19	GM-09	Pharmaceuticals	Manager	Australia	Australia, Singapore, UK	19	30 < 40	female	Master	English
20	PSF-11	Professional Service Firm	Managing Director	North America	Canada, US	38	> 50	male	MBA	English, French, Hungarian
21	PSF-12	Professional Service Firm	Manager	Middle East	Czech Republic, Emirates (Dubai), El Salvador, Spain, UK,	7	30 < 40	male	MBA	Czech, English, French, Portuguese, Russian, Slavic, Spanish
22	PSF-13	Professional Service Firm	President	North America	Canada, UK	35	> 50	male	Bachelor	English, French
23	PSF-14	Professional Service Firm	Executive Director	Africa	Singapore, South Africa	10	30 < 40	female	Bachelor	Afrikaans, English
24	GM-10	Automotive	Director	Europe	Germany, Malaysia, South Africa, US	18	30 < 40	male	Bachelor	English, German
25	PSF-15	Professional Service Firm	Executive Director	North America	France, Germany, Japan, US	19	40 < 50	male	PhD	English, German, French
26	PSF-16	Professional Service Firm	Executive Director	Asia	Malaysia, Philippines	15	40 < 50	female	PhD	Bhasa Malay, Chinese [Cantonese], English
27	GM-11	Resources	Program Director	Asia	Australia, Singapore, South Africa	19	40 < 50	male	Master	English
28	GM-12	Resources	Project Manager	Asia	Netherlands, United States, Germany Singapore	20	40 < 50	male	Bachelor	Dutch, English, German
29	PSF-17	Professional Service Firm	Executive Director	Asia	Malaysia, UK	13	30 < 40	male	Master	Bhasa Malay, Chinese [Cantonese], English
30	GM-13	Conglomerate	Chief Sustainable Officer	Asia	Malaysia, UK, US	20	40 < 50	male	MBA	Bhasa Malay, English
31	GM-14	Consumer Goods	Manager	North America	US	21	40 < 50	male	MBA	English, Spanish
32	GM-15	Consumer Goods	Manager	Africa	Germany, South Africa	11	30 < 40	male	Master	Afrikaans, English, German, Xhosa

The remainder of this sub-section expands on the professional background, professional experience, cultural background and experience of the interviewees, senior management practitioners as well as their demographics.

Professional Background: The interviewee's professional background refers to their organisational association. This study distinguishes between senior management practitioners working for professional service firms [n=17 / 53%] and interviewees working for organisations hosting GBTPs [n=15 / 47%]. Professional service firm interviewees were working for either strategy & management consultancies or IT consultancies; a distinction between these categories is provided in Chapter 6, 'Professional Service Firm Culture'. Interviewees working for organisations hosting GBTPs were situated in the following industries: Automotive, Aviation, Conglomerates, Consumer Goods, Pharmaceutical, Renewable Energies and Resources. Figure 5-5 depicts the interviewee's professional background by industry at the time of the interview, though numerous interviewees had also worked in other industry sectors before.

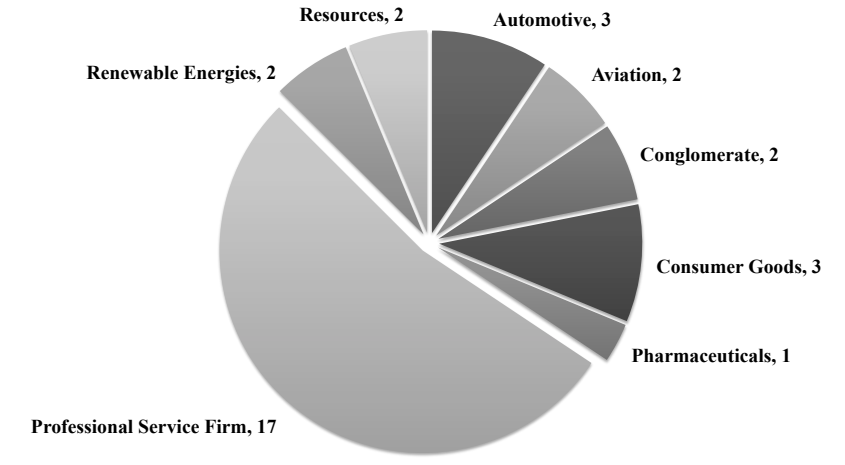

Figure 5-5: Interviewees Professional Background by Industry Sector

All senior management practitioners participating in this study had personnel responsibilities, while their expertise was in a variety of areas such as business transformation, change management, corporate social responsibility, enterprise architecture, ERP implementations, governance, lean management, merger & acquisition, organisational development, process management, program

management, sustainability, or six sigma. Positions held by interviewees in the organisations they were working for included: executive director, senior manager, market lean manger, managing director, chief sustainable officer and program director.

In respect to the GBTPs in which the interviewees were involved in and reported on, they held key positions and responsibility, while their focus was dependent on the nature of the GBTP. The roles interviewees held in GBTPs included: change management lead, enterprise architect, global process owner, integration lead, program manager or director, project manager and team leader.

Professional Experience: The interviewee's professional experience was measured by years of full-time professional work that senior management practitioners had at the time the interview was conducted. Twenty-six senior management practitioners had more than ten years of professional experience, while seven of them had more than twenty years. A total to 521 years of professional experience senior management practitioners was reported on, an average of more than 16 years is a clear indication of their seniority and deep experience.

Cultural Background and Experience: The cultural background and experience of senior managements practitioners refers to the countries in which they grew up, lived and worked.

At the time of the interview conduct, two senior management practitioners were living in Africa, four in Australia, twelve in Europe, seven in Asia, one in the Middle East, five in North America and another one in Latin America. Figure 5-6 visualizes the geographical dispersed locations senior management practitioners were working and living at the time of the interview conduct.

Figure 5-6: Interviewees Location

The cultural background of interviews is shown in Figure 5-7, which depicts the country and region they grew-up.

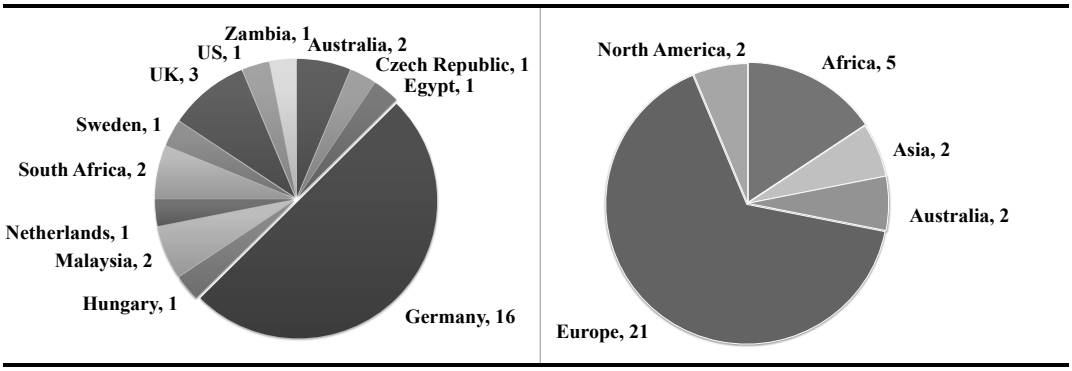

Figure 5-7: Interviewees' Background by Country and Region of Origin

The following excerpt illustrates an interviewee's reflection on growing up in Zimbabwe.

> *"Well Zimbabwe obviously* [shaped me] *that is where I grew up. I spent the first eighteen years of my life there and so the various cultures have obviously impacted me.* [..]. *In Zimbabwe I worked in my dad's motor spares manufacturing business.* [..] *that did make me understand poor labour and understand how they work.* [..] *I had a compassion for the African indigenous people as well as the wealthier; I suppose class society, the whites. So I understood both sides of the fence and I was never you know, I understood or I had to work with racists and I had to try and understand how they think and*

why they think the way they do and that definitely shapes your way of thinking from a young age." [GM-07]

The interviewee's gained their cultural experience by interacting with different cultures as well as working and living in different countries, though quantum and quality of the interaction is difficult to assess. On average, senior management practitioners worked and lived in three countries for longer than one year. Table 5-3 below provides an overview of these countries, and this includes countries they grew-up in or had their tertiary education.

Countries				
Australia	Czech Republic	Indonesia	Philippines	Sweden
Austria	Dubai	Japan	Russia	Thailand
Bosnia	Egypt	Kuwait	Saudi Arabia	UK
Brazil	El Salvador	Malaysia	Singapore	US
Canada	France	Netherlands	South Africa	Venezuela
China	Germany	Nigeria	Spain	Zimbabwe
Columbia				

Table 5-3: Countries Interviewees Lived in for Longer than One Year

Working and living in a country other than the one in which they grew up in often has a great influence on the individual. A senior management practitioner reflects on his first leadership assignment in a foreign country.

"South Africa was the country that influenced me greatly [..] *being for the first time in a country abroad in a significant leadership position, and that is on the one side. On the other side dealing with completely different society and infrastructure in terms of great income differences between like the lower level worker on the line, hardly taking over everyone compared to a lifestyle and a leadership situation of company cars, big houses and stuff like that so it was big differences in living and leading compared to Germany."* [GM-10]

Demographics: Three of the senior management practitioners were aged more than fifty years, twelve of them between forty and fifty years, and sixteen of them between thirty and forty years, and one below thirty years at the time of interview. Five [16%] senior management practitioners were female. All senior management practitioners held an undergraduate university degree; sixteen had a Masters while eleven hold more advanced degrees including six MBA's and five Ph.D.'s. Senior

management practitioners were, on average, conversant in three languages. One even reported speaking seven languages while three were 'only' fluent in a single language, the language being English.

5.5 Reflection on the Research Scene

The description of the research scene as provided in this chapter allows the researcher to tell 'the' story and connect the interested reader to the senior management practitioners lived experience.

Context: GBTPs is the context of this research study because of their importance to business, and the following facts: only one third succeed; they embrace multiple cultures; they are established to change behaviour as well as human aspects; and people issues are reported as key to successful transformations in GBTPs. The latter three points being closely related to culture not only highlight the research's importance to GBTPs but also suggest investigate culture in GBTPs.

Overall, the GBTPs that were reported by interviewees had different objectives, were situated in different industries as well, and the role of information technology was variable. This allowed for insights from a wide range of different GBTPs.

Contextual Variables: Three contextual variables salient in the data generated were discovered to better describe and influence GBTPs: Geographical dispersion of GBTPs and cultural differences were among the first aspects observed and remarked on by interviewees; Language differences and the effect of differing working hours manifested in differences in the time zones, differences in workweek as well as the cultural norms of business hours experienced in the geographically dispersed locations. The language used as the means to communicate and interact with team members, is specific to a country or region. The data stressed the importance of appropriate language proficiency in the project language and knowledge of local language idioms. Information technology inherent to GBTPs is seen as a general

theme and its role distinct in three modes: 'IS Implementation', Pre IS Implementation', or 'IS Support'.

Though the contextual variables discovered in this study do not aim to be exhaustive, these discovered contextual variables do influence the interpretation of the role of culture in the context of GBTPs.

Perspective: Senior management practitioners were identified as being the best people to report on a GBTP given their experience and involvement. Participants included thought leaders in their field. Participants are characterised by their seniority, diverse cultural background, extensive professional and cultural experience and also international residential history.

Overall it was the combination of different angles to the perspective of senior management practitioners that resulted in an integral picture of GBTPs. First, the interviewees' professional background was considered; whether they were an employee of the hosting organisation or a professional service firm engaged in GBTP. Second, the interviewees' cultural background and experience was considered. Although it is to be noted that the sample size consisted mainly of senior management from western cultures. Third, multiple interviewees' reported on the same GBTP from different angles, professional or cultural background. This was the case in some instances, although not all, as interviewees were approached independently and individually. This allowed for the use of the data sample and perspectives reported herein that corroborated the findings, rather than interrogating the data generated (Barbour, 2001).

Overall, one can summarise that the senior management practitioners participating in this study represent both employees of an organisation as well as consultants to an organisation. The research scene, in turn, is a mirror to the real world and empirical grounding basis for revelatory and credible findings.

5.6 Synopsis Research Scene

This chapter described the research scene of this study. It first described the research context, GBTPs and how these are understood in this study. Second, it

elaborated on the discovered contextual variables to GBTPs: geographically dispersed locations, language and information technology. These are deemed to provide the means for describing the environment GBTPs are situated in and influenced by. Also, in combination with the theoretical construct of culture [Chapter 6] the contextual variables are to describe the scene of a GBTP. Third, this chapter summarised a detailed account on this study's unique empirical grounding based on thirty-two interviewees reporting on sixty-one GBTPs. This interview set and case range is a strength of this study and provides a solid foundation for the discovered theory.

The next chapter elaborates on the discovered construct of culture.

Chapter 6: Construct of Culture in Global Business Transformation Projects

Culture is contested, temporal and emergent

-- James Clifford (1986, p. 19)

This chapter uncovers the construct of culture from the perspective of senior management practitioners by identifying its elements and presenting their interrelationships in the theoretical model of the construct of culture. It deconstructs the abstract wonderment of:

- What constitutes the construct of culture in GBTPs?

In doing so, this chapter outlines the theoretical model derived from the grounded theory data analysis explaining the construct of culture in GPTPs. Thereafter it elaborates on each element of the construct of culture and their relationship. These are the discovered culture types present in GBTPs as well as cultural differences and cultural diversity these lead to.

Frist, culture types are explained by introducing the typology of culture types, which is to describe the GBTP's project culture and classify the culture types discovered in this study, namely national culture, organizational culture, industry culture, professional service firm culture and 'theme' culture.

Second, cultural differences understood as discrepancies between culture types are elaborated on.

Third, cultural diversity describes the accumulation of culture types instantiated in a project culture. Also, a typology of diversity is introduced which is to classify GBTPs upon their cultural diversity.

This chapter then illustrates the empirical grounding of the derived theoretical model with two vignettes and concludes with a reflection on the construct of culture in GBTPs.

6.1 Theoretical Model of the Construct of Culture

The theoretical model explaining the construct of culture is a core contribution of this study. It provides a yet unseen perspective and more complete picture of culture. The construct of culture is composed of three elements: culture types, cultural differences and cultural diversity as well as their inter-relationships that allow one to deconstruct and describe GBTPs construct of culture and the project culture of specific a GBTP. Figure 6-1 depicts this theoretical model. The subsequent sections will first explain and discuss each element of this model in greater detail and then revisit the theoretical model of the construct of culture.

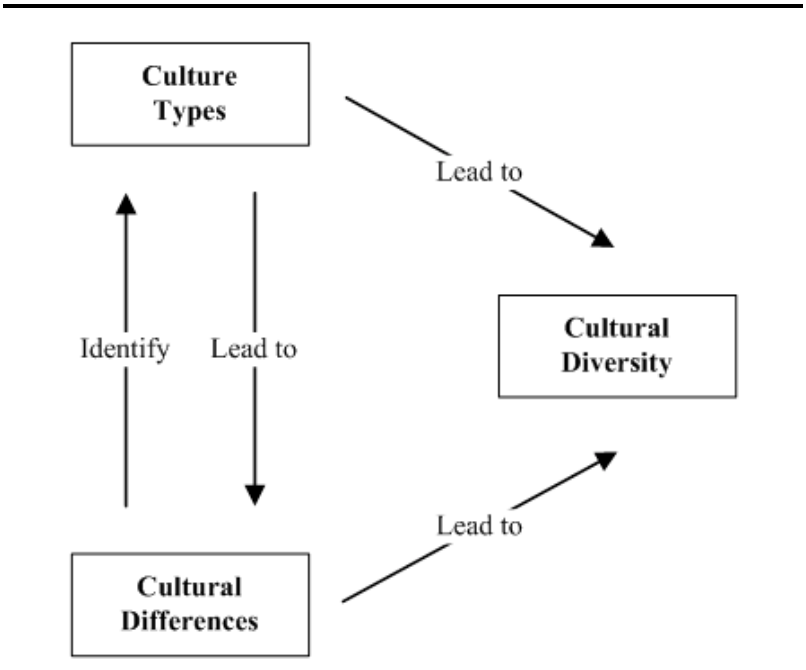

Figure 6-1: Theoretical Model of the Construct of Culture

The empirically grounded theoretical model summarised in Figure 6-1 is of a conceptual rather than prescriptive nature and provides the basis to understand the construct of culture. The theoretical model discovered in the context of GBTPs is expected to be generalisable and applicable to any type of project or organisational setting. Propositions discovered as conjectures are in turn formulated as:

- The construct of culture encapsulates multiple culture types
- The accumulation of culture types leads to cultural differences
- The accumulation of culture types leads to cultural diversity
- Cultural differences lead to cultural diversity
- Cultural differences allow identification of culture types

In practice, the derived theoretical model allows one to deconstruct and understand the construct of culture, or more precisely to identify, discern, delineate and describe the culture types instantiated in a GBTP upon their differences, and the cultural differences recognised by senior management practitioners.

The subsequent sections will first introduce the 'Typology of Culture Types' and elaborate on the culture types discovered in this study followed by the elements of cultural differences and cultural diversity.

6.2 Typology of Culture Types

This section introduces the 'Typology of Culture Types', which classify and elaborate the culture types discovered in the context of GBTPs. Table 6-1 depicts a summary of the culture types discovered in this study, which are detailed in greater depth in the following sub-sections.

Culture Type	Properties
Project Culture	culture of a GBTP that describes the construct of culture of a specific GBTP
	is an amalgamation of the aggregated of culture types instantiated in a GBTP
	possesses the unique properties of each culture type instantiated in a GBTP
	is unique, temporary and dynamic, it develops over time, is alterable and persists for the life of a GBTP
National Culture	reflects on the behaviour, visible task accomplishment and recognised by the way individuals or groups specific to a country or region act
	is multifaceted and refers to either: Nations, regions that embrace nations, regions that are embraced by nations or ethnic groups. Though it is understood on a nation level in this study with the incorrect assumption that a national culture is homogenous since this is the best unit for studying culture (Hofstede, 2003) as well as organisations are mostly structured by nations
	is mostly referred to in the first instance, being the most tangible culture type to senior management practitioners
	is recognized upon either stereotypical expectation, differences between national cultures senior management practitioners engaged with, or comparing the own national cultural background with another
	is multifaceted in the context of GBTPs, determined by the background of individuals and geographical dispersed locations involved embeds the GBTP
Organisational Culture	stands for the patterns of assumptions and values shared among members of an organisation that determine its, the organisation's behaviour
	instantiates relevant values, beliefs and structure of a specific organisation
	is characterized by its anchorage, being either strongly or weakly established and composition, subcultures present
	influences the project culture, is mostly singular with the exception of merger & acquisitions
	spans across national cultures
	Is embraced by the industry culture
Industry Culture	shares patterns of assumptions, values and characteristics across organisational boundaries within an industry sector
	is shaped and determined by the marketplace it is serving, environment it is in operating
	embraces the organisational culture and transcends organisational boundaries
	exists in parallel to the culture type of national culture with both a nation or region
Professional Service Firm Culture	is the organisational culture of a professional service firm instantiated by the professional service firm involved in the GBTP
	has a pivotal role in GBTPs
	has an organisational as well as an individual component
	shapes GBTPs by their mandate, role, manner of work conduct and temporality
Theme' Culture	represents a dominant overarching 'something', a theme that shapes the behaviour and manner of work conduct
	is the product of the values, attitudes, competencies and patterns of behaviour around a 'theme' which is shared and enacted across the GBTP
	is conjectured to be first develop in a project, then absorbs and characterizes an organisation, upon success may be adapted by other organisations and later an industry or even across industries
	is not necessarily manifested consistent across the GBTP, particularly across involved countries
	can exist in parallel to any other culture type

Table 6-1: Summary of Culture Types Discovered

The typology of culture types provides the means to classify and describe the culture types encapsulated in the construct of culture. In practice, culture types may dominate, span across, or influence other culture types depending on the situation. In a specific GBTP the construct of culture describes the GBTP's unique project culture, which possesses the unique properties of each culture type instantiated in that GBTP. Culture is a heterogeneous rather than homogenous construct given the accumulation of the different culture types present in a GBTP. A project culture is a moving target conjectured to influence actions and behaviours of the project team. Figure 6-2 represents a conceptual illustration of the 'Typology of Culture Types'. It depicts the GBTPs project culture as a fluid amalgamation of the culture types organisational culture, national culture, industry culture, professional service firm and 'theme' culture if instantiated.

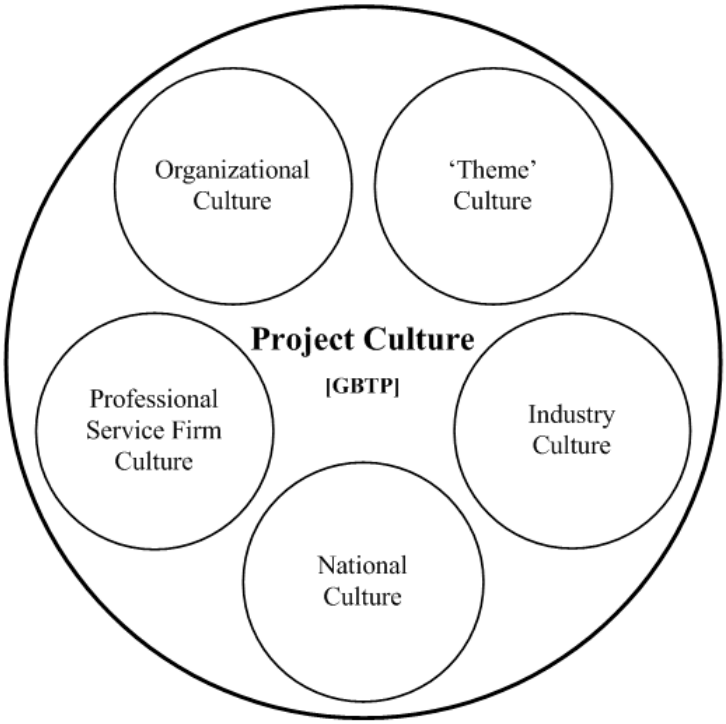

Figure 6-2: Typology of Culture Types

A project culture was found to be alterable, unique and temporary, to develop over time and existent for the life of a GBTP. The project culture may exhibit the contemporary culture of the hosting organisation as being either a subculture of the organisational culture or an on-purpose created culture reinforcing selected values deemed important for the successful completion of the project. It is to be noted that a

project culture is an amalgamation of the aggregated culture types instantiated and not the sum of adding up those culture types.

In practice the project culture is *"the way a particular mix of cultures combines and interacts with a given* [project] *boundary"* (Martin, 1992, p. 111). There is no particular or hierarchical order of the culture types present; this is similar to the observations by Karahanna and colleagues (Karahanna, et al., 2005). The project culture of a GBTP can be dominated by a strongly anchored organisational culture, which spans over the culture types of national cultures, and the industry culture in place. At the same time, a professional service firm culture may strongly influence that project culture while a 'theme' culture adds certain values i.e. safety in a safety culture. Literature often associates a project culture with successful collaboration in complex projects (Jaafari, 2003; Maya et al., 2005). Palmer (2002) provides an illustration on the case of Kimberly-Clark on how a project culture can help to achieve business success by emphasising the importance of getting the politics right, the commitment of project team members and ensuring that the new processes fit to the organizations practice and culture.

The relationships and dependencies between the different culture types aggregated in the project culture of a specific GBTP are multifaceted, and were often reported as intangible and blurred by interviewees. The typology of culture types may be best explained with the analogy of a lava lamp. The lava lamp represents project culture; blobs of coloured wax represent the culture types present, while the heating light bulb and surface tension breaker represent the GBTP's environment [research scene]. Analogous with the ascent and descent of the wax blobs in the lava lamp, the culture types present constantly change while their boundaries are indistinct, may overlap and be shaped by the environment that the GBTP is situated in.

Despite that it was not in the scope of this study to derive general rules in order to create a formalism of the interrelationship between the instantiated culture types, the data suggested that the project culture of a GBTP is mostly determined by the organisational culture, which resides within an industry sector, which may have a specific industry culture while operating across several national cultures. In addition the culture types of professional service firm culture and 'theme' culture may shape the GBTP.

The typology of culture types contributes to a better understanding of culture. Similar, though conceptual the work by Karahanna and colleagues (2005) discerns interrelated levels of culture, their values and practices. The levels of culture being supranational, national, professional, organisational, group and individual culture. However, this typology of culture types provides a more holistic and practice orientated view of culture allowing decompose and assess the project culture of a GBTPs as well as it is empirically grounded. In contrast to the work of Karahanna et al. (2005), taking the perspective from an individual stance the typology of culture types is to represent the project culture of a GBTP as an amalgamation of the culture types present in a GBTP. Their work adds to the understanding of culture by specifying conditions under which certain levels of culture dominate; they distinct thereby between values and practices. Values understood as *"relationships among abstract categories that are characterized by strong affective components and imply a preference for a certain type of action"* (Karahanna, et al., 2005, p. 5). Values are acquired by altering experiences, and they provide fundamental assumptions of how things are (Karahanna, et al., 2005). Practices are learned over time and provide the means of doing things (Karahanna, et al., 2005). In practice, national cultures mostly add to values while organizational or group cultures add to practices.

Drawing on the work of Karahanna and colleagues (2005) who suggest that it is critical to understand the practices of parties involved in a project culture as these are to affect the values and thus project culture of a GBTP during its formative phase. Thus, it would be to explore the values, practices and their implications of culture types present. In GBTPs these may include values and practices common to the organisation, the industry sector the GBTP it is situated in, the overarching themes present, as well as the practices and experience of involved individuals and professional service firms. Also, ensuring and promoting 'right' practices through communication is conjectured to add to that as practices are suggested not to influence values once these are stable (Karahanna, et al., 2005). This perspective is subject to be further developed in the continuance of this study.

In summary, the derived 'Typology of Culture Types' shows the discovered culture types instantiated in the GBTP's project culture. These culture types can be identified, discerned, delineated and described for any GBTP. In the context of this

study, what has been discovered and is central to GBTP project culture is the amalgam of culture types, which is shaped by the aggregation of the multiple culture types instantiated in the GBTP, rather than one singular aspect. Also, the project culture does not require that all culture types discovered be instantiated in every GBTP.

The following sub-sections first review the established national and organisational culture as discovered in the data. It then goes on to detail and discuss how the culture types of industry culture, professional service firm culture and 'theme' culture were discovered. The sections thereafter elaborate on the elements [categories] of cultural differences and cultural diversity.

6.2.1 National Culture

National culture reflects on the behaviour, task accomplishment visible, and recognised by how individuals or groups specific to a country or region act. It is formally defined as *"the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another* [..] *the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence a human group's response to its environment"* (Hofstede, 1980, p. 25).

The culture type of national culture is multifaceted and refers to a collection of behaviours grouped around: nations; regions that embrace nations; regions that are embraced by nations or ethnic groups. Examples of nations are France, Finland or Japan. Regions that embrace nations referred by interviewees included the Middle East, Latin America or Scandinavia. Scandinavia consists of the nations of Denmark, Norway and Sweden, but they collectively have similar characteristics [called Nordic by Hofstede (Hofstede, 1980)] observable by non-Scandinavians. Regions within nations refer to places such as Bavaria a state in the south of Germany or states like Queensland in Australia or Texas in the USA. Each of these within nation regions have their own unique values, believes and practices. Also, the nation state concept is relatively new and will continue to change (Myers & Tan, 2002).

Ethnic groups, in contrast, can span across national boundaries, such as for the Romany [Gypsies] but at the same time a nation can encompass multiple ethnic

groups, such as in China, India or Papua New Guinea. The are over 700 languages in Papua New Guinea which has Melanesian, Papuan, Negrito, Micronesian, Polynesian ethnic groups. There are 56 recognised different ethnic groups in China[22] and over 2000 ethnic groups in India[23]. Other examples are the Basques who are found both in the northwest of Spain and in the southwest of France, or Malaysia which encompasses three distinct ethnic groups the Malay, the Chinese and the Indian as well as some indigenous peoples[24].

The 'Encyclopaedia of World Cultures' (O'Leary & Levinson, 1991) identified 35 different cultures in 14 nations in the Middle East; 98 different cultures identified in 48 countries in Africa; 81 cultures in 32 countries in Western Europe, and 147 Native American cultures and nine North American folk cultures in North America.

Interestingly, national culture was discovered as being the most tangible and prominent culture type to senior management practitioners. All but two interviewees referred to the culture type of national culture in the very first instance of sharing their lived experiences by either directly identifying a specific national culture or comparing the culture of two nations in a project setting.

In turn, this study, despite its acknowledged inaccuracy, accommodates the prevalent understanding of national culture among interviewees who seemed to associate national culture with a specific nation under the assumption that nations are homogenous. Similarly, well established and recognised scholars such as Hofstede suggest that *"nations are not the best units for studying cultures* [..] *they are usually the only kind of units available for comparison and better than nothing"* (Hofstede, 2003, p. 812). He further states that 90% of the conclusions drawn on that basis

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[22] *"So far, there are 56 ethnic groups identified and confirmed by the Central Government, namely, the Han, Mongolian, Hui, Tibetan, Uygur, Miao, Yi, Zhuang, Bouyei, Korean, Manchu, Dong, Yao, Bai, Tujia, Hani, Kazak, Dai, Li, Lisu, Va, She, Gaoshan, Lahu, Shui, Dongxiang, Naxi, Jingpo, Kirgiz, Tu, Daur, Mulam, Qiang, Blang, Salar, Maonan, Gelo, Xibe, Achang, Pumi, Tajik, Nu, Ozbek, Russian, Ewenki, Deang, Bonan, Yugur, Jing, Tatar, Drung, Oroqen, Hezhen, Moinba, Lhoba and Jino."* As stated by the National Minorities Policy and Practice in China report of the standing mission to the UN of the People's Republic of China http://www.china-un.ch/eng/bjzl/t176942.htm Last accessed on 9 November 2012

[23] The US State Department states, *"While the national census does not recognize racial or ethnic groups, it is estimated that there are more than 2,000 ethnic groups in India."* http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/3454.htm Last assessed 9 November 2012

[24] The ethnic mix of Malaysia is *"Malay 50.4%, Chinese 23.7%, indigenous 11%, Indian 7.1%, others 7.8% [2004 est.]"* as reported by the US Government Central Intelligence Agency [CIA] at https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/my.html Last assessed 13 November 2012

should still hold. This simplification allows further connection with and integration of existing work on the dimensions of national culture such as Hofstede (1980), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) or the GLOBE project (House, et al., 2004). It is to be remembered that the scope of this study is to understand the entirety of the construct of culture in GBTP, and its elements and their relationship within the GBTP, rather than to assess, classify or elaborate on national cultures and their specific implications.

Another aspect to be taken into account is that organisations are mostly structured by nation or region, thus senior management practitioners may subconsciously think of the nation when referring to the present national culture. Also managers tend to identify themselves with a national culture; thus this aspect of the aggregation of the culture within a nation cannot be ignored (Sahay, Nicholson, & Krishna, 2003).

In the context of this study, the culture type of national culture is multifaceted and embedded in GBTPs. All GBTP reported on comprised of more than one national culture type as determined by the background of individuals working for the organisations hosting the GBTP and also through the engaged professional service firms as well as resulting from the geographically dispersed locations of the GBTP. In consequence *"the national culture in which organisations* [GBTPs] *and workers are embedded shape and are shaped by the organisation of work and the practices that emerge"* (Hinds, et al., 2011, p. 159).

Interviewees mostly recognised national culture either upon stereotypical expectation, or through identified differences between national cultures as they engaged with or comparing their own national cultural background with the other. An illustration for the latter is the following extract of an interviewee [German] comparing the decision making process between South Africa and Malaysia.

> *"Work habits, in South Africa for example, the main thing was you had a very much authoritative leadership style. People expect clear orders, no big discussion around what has to be done. They expect that you, especially as a German expatriate to give clear advice on what needs to be done. There was no common joint decision on doing it that way or that way. In Malaysia I experienced a lot of pre-discussion before decisions were made, people want to be consulted, especially on the higher level of management* [..] *you could*

> *never go into a meeting and try and find a solution in the meeting. You had to pre-discuss things, get at least one person on your side and then in the meeting pretend there is problem solving but actually it was decided beforehand."* [GM-10]

An example for stereotypical expectations is the following, an interviewee comparing differences between national cultures in Asia on a national level he is aware of based on his experience.

> *"The local cultural differences that I have seen in the Asian countries* [..] *Singaporeans are generally very compliant, the Philippines tend to be a bit messy and chaotic but they are generally compliant. The Thai's are quiet and compliant usually. Indonesians are a bit chaotic. Hong Kong tends to be more proactive, you know Taiwanese tend to be more vocal."* [GM-08]

This is accordance with the work of Snyder (1984) that beliefs based on experiences create reality and thus expectations may affect the behaviour of senior management practitioners. This includes how individuals or a community acts based on their habitual practices embedded in their national culture visible in the manner of work conducted in accordance with a specific nation, region or ethnic group. Stereotyping is further elaborated on in Chapter 7, under 'Recognition'. Further aspects upon which the culture type of national culture was discovered in this study are traditions, specifics to ethnic groups or dominant religions.

Overall the culture type of national culture is one component of the typology of culture types that allows understanding of the construct of culture within GBTP. National culture was discovered to be of particular importance since most GBTPs involve people of multiple cultural backgrounds and span across geographically dispersed locations. In the current business context interviewees reported national cultures and associated value systems to become increasingly blur.

> *"The trend over the last ten years is that those cultural differences are becoming more blurred because of more people you know, study in different countries or working in different countries"* [PSF-17]

This applies particularly at a management level where globalisation leads towards the alignment of a managerial value system, given environmental factors such as the political systems or education systems (Tan, 2002). Thus *"instead of addressing whether national culture makes a difference it is more useful to address the issue of how national culture makes a difference"* (Leung, et al., 2005, p. 368).

Consequently it becomes increasingly important to recognise and understand the culture types of national culture in place.

6.2.2 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture is formally defined as *"the pattern of shared beliefs and values that give members of an institution meaning, and provide them with the rules for behaviour in their organisation"* (Davis, 1984, p. 1). It stands for the patterns of assumptions and values shared among its members that determine the organisation's unique behaviour (Barley, 1983). The organisational culture serves as a foundation for the organisation (Denison, 1990) since it provides norms of operating the 'right' or 'wrong' way while, at the same time stabilising its operations (Ajmal & Koskinen, 2008). Organisations have a unique style that distinguishes them from each other (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006). They *"have complex relationships with the environments in which they operate and from which they recruit their members"* (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006, p. 175). Ott observed that one of the *"very few areas of general consensus about organisational culture* [is that] *each organisational culture is relatively unique"* (Ott, 1989, p. 52). Also an organisational culture is something that can be managed and changed, at least in some organisations (Schein, 1984).

The culture type of organisational culture in the context of GBTPs instantiates relevant values, beliefs and structure of a specific organisation in the project culture, mostly the organisation hosting the GBTP. Further, the organisational culture influences the project culture and is embraced by an industry culture. In other words organisational cultures *"are in part moulded by the requirements of the industry in which they operate"* (Gordon, 1991, p. 410).

Properties characterising an organisational culture and discovered to be relevant to GBTPs are the anchorage of the organisational culture, being either strongly or weakly established, and in its composition, made of the subcultures present.

Anchorage: The organisational culture by senior management practitioners was often recognised as either being a strong or a weak organisational culture (Peters &

Watermann, 1982). A strong organisational culture is one in which its articulated values are both widely shared and strongly held (O'Reilly, 1989). A weak organisational culture is one in which the articulated values are not strongly held or practiced. In instances where the organisation's core values are shared and to a high extent, practiced by individuals associated with the organisations, the organisational performance is superior as measured by its effectiveness (Peters & Watermann, 1982; Schein, 1985). *"Without exception, the dominance and coherence of culture proved to be an essential quality of the excellent companies."* (Peters & Watermann, 1982, p. 76) or as an interviewee suggested, a strongly established organisational culture tends to be more facilitating and supportive.

> *"The stronger the culture usually supports* [..] *the overall health and benefit of the company"* [PSF-13]

A strongly established organisational culture is often referred to as something desirable that increases the organisational effectiveness and competitiveness and therefore requires management (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006). A weakly established organisational culture in contrast is suggested to be more creative but also accommodates change better as illustrated by a senior management practitioner.

> *"It is easier for them* [organisation with a weakly established culture] *to implement change."* [PSF-13]

The following extract exemplifies the core values of a client's established organisational culture from the perspective of a director of a professional service firm.

> *"The machinery company* [GBTP Engineering 2]*, they had a culture everybody is hard working, everybody dedicated to the company and it had never given the history that it was an old company, almost a hundred years old, never lay offs or anything like that so everybody was really part of basically the company as a family."* [PSF-15]

He further continued by depicting the manifestations of the values present and the consequences they lead to.

> *"That atmosphere led to a very open approach to the process management. People were really focused on improving things for their organisation, they knew that there is no risk that they would lose so get any disadvantages through the work so it created a very constructive and positive atmosphere to very interesting ideas for process improvement and changes."* [PSF-15]

Composition: An organisational culture may embrace subcultures. Organisational subcultures are *"a subset of an organisation's members who interact regularly with one another, identify themselves as a distinct group, share a set of problems, and routinely take action on the basis of collective understandings unique to the group"* (Van Maanen & Barley, 1985, p. 38). These may have the same or similar set of core values as the parent organisational culture, while their peculiar characteristics vary. Subcultures tend to be rooted in the organisational structure, specific to organisational sub-units such as the headquarters, a department, business unit or a subsidiary. As an interviewee illustrated with an example of the organisation he is working for.

> *"Within* [Organization - GBTP Consumer 9] *itself, you will find different departmental cultures* [..] *will have a different focus than other departments on what needs to be done."* [GM-08]

Each subculture though may have its own separate 'hierarchy' such as indicators of commitment, structural integrity, barriers or ethos (Schouten & McAlexander, 1995). Literature further suggests three types of subcultures: an enhancing, an orthogonal and a counter subculture (Martin & Siehl, 1983). The enhancing subculture supports and adheres core values of the organisational culture. An orthogonal subculture contains both supporting and conflicting values of the organisational culture, while a counter culture is in place when subcultures are directly opposed to or challenging the overall organisational culture. This was beyond the scope of this study to assess and classify the subcultures discovered.

Overall the culture type of organisational culture characterises the organisation and determines its acting across boundaries of national culture. With the exception of mergers & acquisitions the construct of culture in GPTPs encompass one culture type of organisational culture and a may include an indefinite number of subcultures. Also it is the organisational culture that moulds and shapes the ways of thinking and behaviour from the past to suit the present situation (Bate, 1997). At the same time the organisational culture, as part of the project culture, helps to transcend national boundaries as individuals of an organisation are often trained to approach executive tasks in a particular way. From the perspective of involved professional service firms, the underlying organisational culture of the GBTP is understood as culture of the client. Organisations share certain aspects of their environment; one dimension of

the environment is the industry they operate in. The discovered culture type of 'industry culture' that embraces organisations is elaborated on in the following sub-section.

6.2.3 Industry Culture

The culture type industry culture was discovered by identifying patterns of assumptions, values and characteristics shared beyond organisational boundaries within an industry sector. It expresses commonalities that are shared across the industry such as strategic issues, competitors or boundaries (Phillips, 1994). An industry culture embraces organisational cultures and transcends organisational boundaries (Phillips, 1994) and shares assumptions and values to an indistinct and variable extent within an industry (Gordon, 1991). Also, it has a major influence on organisational culture (Gordon, 1991; Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007). On a conceptual level, industry culture can be compared with the culture type of national culture, as the industry cultures boundaries are often indefinite and its peculiarities vary. An industry culture may exist in parallel to the culture type of national culture (Phillips, 1994). The characteristics within an industry culture are most likely quite different to characteristics of other industries (Gordon, 1991; Bennett, Fadil, & Greenwood, 1994). Also, less variation may occur among organisations with similar processes or growth opportunities (Chatman & Jehn, 1994). However, *"even within the same industry, firms can differ sharply in their global strategic profiles"* (Ghemawat, 2007, p. 4).

An example is the industry culture of the aviation sector, which was in this study reported as characterized by its emphasis on safety, a high degree of standardization and regulations as well as strong command in English.

The key determinant of the industry culture as discovered in this study was the market it is serving [marketplace], but also unions. Similar to the other culture types discovered, the industry culture of a specific industry is identified and recognised upon peculiarities that are distinct compared to other industries. However the differences between industries may be incremental as an interviewee reflected.

> *"They think they are dramatically different but they are not, but all industries are slightly different so the chemical industry is different from pharmaceutical is different from banking"* [PSF-11]

Another senior management practitioner added:

> *"for example there is a certain way of thinking in banking which is different in manufacturing which is different from government."* [PSF-13]

In general, there are greater differences across industries rather than within industries (Chatman & Jehn, 1994). Cameron and Quinn (Cameron & Quinn, 2006) discovered similar findings when plotting the organisational culture profile of organisations within industries being fairly similar. Examples include the average cultural profiles for construction, finance, manufacturing and mining industry sector.

Marketplace: The marketplace was discovered as key determinant of an industry culture determined by its products, services and customers that tend to be largely similar within an industry sector. Customers determine the marketplace by the kind of relationship they have with the products or services, such as being end-users or processing organisations. Products and services determine the characteristics of the marketplace. This includes the visibility of the product, distribution channels, its margins as well as the legislative power required to produce or sell the product. These can vary in terms of their condition being raw materials such as resources or fully processed end-customer ready products such as pharmaceuticals or high-tech instruments.

The differences, dependencies and relationships between the marketplace that organisations are operating in and how its products, services and customers deviate by industry are illustrated in the following example.

> *"There are some general cultural differences across industries and they are kind of driven by the relationship that a company has with their customers. An* ['name' oil & gas company]*, their customers are for the most part other business customers. So they treat things more transactional, they are not as concerned about building a long term relationship, working with other businesses drives you to do things differently than if you were working directly with consumers. The* ['name' oil & gas company]*, they are vertically integrated and they do have gasoline stations but the product that they sell out of it, consumers cannot touch and feel. It is a true commodity product that really is not very differentiable between* [hypothetical oil & gas companies]*, hence consumers do not have the same connection with their products. Conversely though for consumer product companies like* ['name' consumer

> goods company] *and* [‘name’ consumer goods company] *they know well that they need to make some kind of connection through their products with their customers in order to sell their product. They have got attributes that consumers can describe, can think about and decide one versus the other. There are some cultural uniquenesses driven by the industry, the market place that those folks serve.“* [GM-14]

He further detailed the implications of an industry culture translated in the context of the consumer goods company he is currently working for, emphasising on the importance of the relationship to consumers and how this is reflected in the industry.

> *“As a* [hypothetical consumer goods company]*, the organisation is concerned about the relationship it has with its customers and that carries over into how work gets done in the company. So one of the things that must be realized is that culture of relationship is pervasive across how people get new jobs, how processes work, how projects have to be done.”* [GM-14]

Another aspect of the marketplace is regulations, standards, or government influence in place that may differ by nation. One example is the finance sector, as an interviewee illustrated.

> *“Banks have to abide by the local rules and regulations of the country that they operate in. So therefore the governing regulations in the UK were different to the governing regulations in the US with respect to product disclosure, with respect to a whole bunch of things.”* [PSF-11]

However at the same time regulations and standards provide continuity through guidelines governed by a government or international trade body e.g. IATA[25] in the aviation industry.

Unions: The role of unions and the degree of unionisation within an industry sector was discovered as another significant aspect shaping the industry culture and as such, and is not to be underestimated. Unions can have a far-reaching effect on the conduct of business, in particular, the speed in which an organisation is able to work, as well as make and execute decisions.

[25] IATA is an international trade body, created over 60 years ago by a group of airlines. Today, IATA represents some 230 airlines comprising 93% of scheduled international air traffic. The organisation also represents, leads and serves the airline industry in general. http://www.iata.org/Pages/default.aspx Last assessed 14 November 2012

An example reported on by an interviewee includes deploying Business Process Management in a project based in the UK, where unions increased bureaucracy and slowed down the progress of the project.

> *"UK is very unionized.* [..] *there was an impact that culture had; things did take a lot longer.* [..] *you had to be very careful how you measured things, how you treaded, what you did. You could not just go in and do what you thought best."* [GM-07]

The influence of unions and the degree of unionisation varies between countries, though generally unions tend to be well established in industrialised countries. The mechanics of unions therefore need to be understood, from both the perspective of the workforces as well as the cooperation between the government and the organisation.

> *"It is about the understanding of different* [..] *views around labour. And specifically the whole perspective of unionized versus non-unionized workforces."* [GM-14]

In addition, to the above examples of patterns discovered, manifested in and shaping an industry culture were included: the proficiency of English as 'standard' language across the aviation industry, the affinity towards lean management in the automotive sector, or the high degree of compliance implied in industry sectors like pharmaceutical or healthcare.

Literature further highlights technology and growth as aspects differentiating industry cultures (Chatman & Jehn, 1994). Technology is *"one of the most salient similarities among firms in the same industry"* (Chatman & Jehn, 1994, p. 526). In other words, technology is a constraint to the variation of how things are done, while less variation may occur among organisations with similar processes as well as growth opportunities (Chatman & Jehn, 1994). In practice this allows organisations to draw on industry reference process models, such as SAP[26] industry solutions often utilised in GBTPs involving an ERP implementation or upgrade.

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[26] SAP Business Maps http://www.sap.com/solutions/businessmaps/composer/features.epx
SAP Cross-Industry Business Maps
http://www.sap.com/solutions/businessmaps/99B4D4E97A624BE5987BC14633908B9B/index.epx
SAP Industry-Specific Business Maps
http://www.sap.com/solutions/businessmaps/6BE866F998B04F869A7783381CFA7170/index.epx
Last assessed 11 February 2012

Generally an industry culture is seen as relatively stable since changes would involve a complete restructure of the industry (Gordon, 1991). It is to be noted that industries including print & publishing and retail underwent a dramatic change over the past decade with the emergence of the Internet. For the latter, shopping for most products is literally possible everywhere, abandoning the need to be physically in a shopping centre (RolandBerger, 2011; Deloitte, 2012). In a similar situation, Sagiv and Schwartz (2007) found that high-tech firms that operate in a dynamic and novel market are required to quickly change and adapt, while markets of low-tech companies such as utility companies are characterised as being static and reliable.

In summary, the industry culture not only shapes the project culture, it allows one to draw on patterns and references that might apply to the GBTP operating in an industry sector. However the culture type of industry culture, other then organisational and national culture, is not necessarily instantiated in the project culture of a GBTP as there may not be a sufficiently formed industry culture to draw upon. Furthermore, not all characteristics, assumptions and values are manifested in the same imperative across an industry, as there might be significant variation of the industry cultures within an industry sector (Gordon, 1991). In addition is to be noted that for GBTPs situated in conglomerates, a single industry culture does not necessarily apply since different environments, industry sectors may pose different demands.

As a result it is important to understand the properties of the industry cultures, prevalent in the constitution of its marketplace but also practices adapted due to regulations or unions, technology as well as the industry's growth perspectives all of which are reported to influence the behaviour and thus conduct of work within an industry sector, including day-to-day operations, and their processes.

6.2.4 Professional Service Firm Culture

Professional service firms were discovered to be of particular importance to GBTPs, interviewees reported that professional service firms often take a pivotal role in GBTPs given their extensive involvement as well as the quantum of work undertaken. Also, all but one GBTP reported on by senior management practitioners

in this study involved professional service firms. In some instances the members of engaged professional service firms even outnumbered the project members of the hosting organisation as a program director stated.

> *"The majority of people on the project* [GBTP Resources 1] *are* [PSF 'name'] *people"* [GM-11]

This is because organisations were rarely reported to have sufficient resources and skills to handle and deliver the tasks of GBTPs.

Professional service firms are characterized by their knowledge intensity, low capital intensity and professionalized workforce (Von Nordenflycht, 2010). A *"central characteristic associated with professionals* [consultants, people working for a professional service firm] *is their mastery of a particular expertise or knowledge area"* (Von Nordenflycht, 2010, p. 156). This implies a value generation by transforming a substantial body of knowledge towards the client helping him to achieve his objectives while being engaged in a project (Starbuck, 1992).

Professional service firms are classified by the scope of services they provide and respective magnitude of domain knowledge. In this study these service segments refer to strategy consultancies, management consultancies and IT consulting companies. Strategy consultancies and management consultancies advise mostly by providing recommendations for being more effective and or efficient rather than executing them on an operational level, though the latter focuses on senior and middle management while strategy consultants advise top management.

IT consultancies, including IS implementation partners, in the majority focus on outlining IT strategies and assisting in the implementation of information systems. They usually provide advice and support for a business and process as well as on a technical level. These services can include areas such as enterprise architecture, process management as well as domain specific advice or leading the setting-up and customization of packaged information systems implementations. However, services provided by both strategy and IT consultancies may overlap as strategy consultancies often have IT practices while, on the other hand, IT consultancies have strategy practices.

The professional service firm culture is the culture type instantiated in the project culture by the professional service firm or firms involved in the GBTP. It is the organisational culture of a professional service firm that is manifested and recognized by their values and through their behaviour and actions, as well as involvement of the consultants working for the professional service firm. In different contexts, a discovered professional service firm culture may classify as a professional or occupational culture, shared by people of similar profession, occupation (Myers & Tan, 2002). However, in GBTPs a professional service firm emerged as a culture type of its own, given their significant involvement in most GBTPs surveyed. This professional service firm culture may or may not influence the GBTPs project culture. Its influence is a function of the roles and responsibilities of the professional service firm or firms' consultants deployed in the GBTP. Some senior consultants may have strong influence on the GBTP project culture because of their personality, knowledge and role/influence in the project. Differences in the consultants' personality and knowledge may be ingrained by their experience (Werr, Stjernberg, & Docherty, 1997).

Overall the organisational culture of professional service firms was discovered of being strongly established as they often heavily invest in building as well as continuously reinforcing their enterprise culture. The following extract illustrates its value as seen from an executive director's perspective.

> *"Management of the enterprise culture plays a very important role, as senior executive in this organisation* [Professional Service Firm] *you have every quarter required trainings of culture, everywhere you go you see the core values, get examples how those core values are lived. That is something that is really a key management focus for many, many people just full time, nothing else then making sure that they force and reinforce that culture. I can say that within* [Professional Service Firm] *that leads to lots of concrete projects."* [PSF-15]

Similar focus on the continuous maintenance and revitalisation of the professional service firms' culture was reported from interviewees working for other professional service firms. One interviewee shared how her office had regular 'impact days', such as participating in social activities like tree planting.

> *"We were putting plants in a garden, it was a public place and we had the T-shirt where it was written* [Professional Service Firm 'name'] *and a cap*

> *where it was written also, and this should strengthen our relationship towards the company and the loyalty"* [PSF-08]

Moreover the organisational culture of professional service firms is part of their unique identity and brand. A partner of a professional service firm summarised it thus

> *"*[It] *develops an organisational reputation where the brand* [Professional Service Firm] *stands for more things. Instead of just considering something as a product people start to attach a culture or an image of what the people or service experience would be like with that brand."* [PSF-17]

The individuals working for professional service firms play a substantive role as ambassadors of the professional service firm and its culture. They *"as agents, consultants appropriate knowledge expeditiously, and sometimes challenge institutionalized practices"* (Freidson, 1986, p. 215) and often facilitate the project and thus shape and become part of the GBTP's project culture. As active participants who channel their involvement and enactment they are *"able to refuse, to conform to the tools and the culture, and do things the way they see fit"* (Orlikowski, 1991, p. 32), in order to achieve objectives drawing on their knowledge (Merilaeinen, Tienari, Thomas, & Davies, 2004). The culture of the professional service firm is expressed and imposed through interaction as well as socialisation of consultants within a project team. In other words *"consultants engage with their workplace through various degrees of ideological commitment, cynicism, detachment, and, infrequently, with direct action that undermines the production rules"* (Orlikowski, 1991, p. 37). Professional service firms therefore recruit their consultants against the set of values explicit in the professional service firm (Cheese, Thomas, & Craig, 2007). For example, an executive director described 'his' consultants as:

> *"I have here the best people on board and everybody who is on board has to have and show ambition to be here among the best. That is something that is of course influences a lot of the project and the behaviour."* [PSF-15]

In concordance with the above extract, another executive director working for the same professional service firm added:

> *"A culture of A-type personalities, very driven."* [PSF-14]

Further, it is to be highlighted that professional service firms are in particular engaged for their commitment and enthusiasm since if they would behave like employees there would be no reason for engaging them (Merilaeinen, et al., 2004).

After describing the construct of the culture type of professional service firm culture, the remainder of this sub-section is to elaborate on the relevant properties uncovered within the professional service firms culture, namely their mandate, role, temporality and work conduct in the GBTP.

Mandate: The mandate of professional service firms engaged in GBPTs is one key aspect as to how the culture type of professional services firm culture is instantiated and thus may shape the project culture. The mandate of professional service firms in GBTPs can be a mandate to lead, or a mandate to execute or a self-empowered mandate.

A *mandate to lead* involves a clear responsibility and accountability of key activities and/or deliverables of which the outcome is expected to be of high impact, but also to direct and mange the GBTP. This type of mandate is likely to shape or change the project culture.

A *mandate to execute* occurs in the execution of work-packages with no involvement in higher-level decision-making or determination of project objectives. In other words, professional service firms with the *mandate to execute* are engaged to do the work. Thus their impact on project culture is low as well as *a mandate to execute* is likely to either not result in any change or result only in a marginal change in the project culture. An example for a mandate to execute if the following reported by an interviewee describing his role in an GBTP he was involved in as:

> *"To structure a one-week workshop that would help those senior and middle managers define the business processes that most needed to be improved in order to deliver their strategic goals"* [PSF-11]

A *self-empowered mandate* is possessed by a professional service firm, which either did not have a specified mandate or was engaged to execute, but given their commitment, enthusiasm, and interaction, positioned them in a role similar to the mandate to lead. An example therefore is illustrated in the vignette 'Ignorance of Culture' in Chapter 7 outlining how and director of an professional service firm acted against cultural norms and business manner in place as well as recommendations of his own colleagues.

Role: The mandate of involved professional service firms interferes with the role of their task or deliverable, and in this study was either ‘core’ or ‘support’. A professional service engaged for a ‘support’ task does not necessarily impose their professional service firm culture in the project culture, nevertheless their involvement in achieving project outcomes is indispensable. An example is a professional service firm, such as software vendors, which providing support services for server maintenance and also implementation support but are neither responsible for key deliverables nor do they hold leading functions in the GBTP.

This is in contrast to professional service firms with responsibility and accountability for key deliverables of the project, subject matter expertise, taking leading positions in guiding and advising their client in key decisions. As a consequence, these are more likely to impose their professional service firm culture into the GBTP’s project. Also, they often have a clear mandate to lead or are self-empowered.

One such example is presented in the instance of 'Delivery and Integration' of the vignette 'GBTP Resources Company' [GBTP Resources 1] in Chapter 7, where the professional service firm engaged was evaluated against the same measures as the employees of the organisation. In practice, consultants of professional service firms, independent of their empowerment and deliverable or task they are engaged for, may also act as information transmitters or bridges, as described by Bessant and Rush (1995) across different departments or even subsidiaries across continents. A director of a professional service firm reflected.

> *“As a consultant I became the continuity between two sides of the ocean. I was bringing in the knowledge of what these other guys had done in the UK into the US operation. They* [the client] *said I really think you should visit them, I think that you should see what they have done.”* [PSF-13]

Also, consultants, in contrast to the clients, often can provide information and knowledge more economically (Bessant & Rush, 1995) as it is easier for them, being outsiders without prejudice.

> [Continuance of previous quote] *“I know for a fact that they did not once ever contact the UK people because in their opinion there was nothing that the ‘English’ could teach them about how to do this type of stuff.”* [PSF-13]

Not only do professional service firms act as information transmitters, they also up skill the client by leveraging their knowledge.

> *"We were measured on how well that we do knowledge transfer to their resources to enable them to maintain it* [implemented ERP system] *themselves.* [..] *we enhanced their skills"* [PSF-14]

Temporal: Another aspect of what the professional service firm culture is the temporal involvement of professional service firms in GBTPs. The professional service firm culture thus actively influences the project culture only for the duration of its involvement, which is mostly determined by the objectives or deliverables to be fulfilled. Also, it is not necessarily a given that either consultants or professional service firms are involved throughout the entire GBTP. Individuals working for professional service firms are hence like itinerant workers.

> *"I do not need to go back to a lot of clients about things. I do a project and I move onto the next one."* [PSF-14]

At the same time, particularly in large-scale GBTPs, professional service firms are often involved in a large number of consultants over an extended period of time.

Work Conduct: Professional service firms differentiate themselves from other organisations through the scope of services they provide and by their style of working and manner of work conducted. At the same time they follow similar patterns of leaving much to the substantial discretion of the consultants (Chatman & Jehn, 1994). According to Turner (Turner, 1982), consulting activities in general can be broken down into eight categories, which are: providing information to a client; solving a client's problems; making a diagnosis, which may necessitate redefinition of the problem; making recommendations based on the diagnosis; assisting with implementation of recommended solutions; building a consensus and commitment around corrective action; facilitating client learning that is, teaching clients how to resolve similar problems in the future; and permanently improving organisational effectiveness. Their activities however differ in consulting type. In strategy consulting, companies such as McKinsey, BCG and Bain provide less standardised and more creative services, while management consultancies such as Cap Gemini, Ernst & Young and Accenture are known for the standardised services they provide (Hansen, Nohria, & Tierney, 1999).

In practice, however, the execution differentiates one professional service firm from another. One partner of a management consultancy described how the professional service firm he is working for delivers its consulting service.

> *"Ours is a very, very involved type of consulting. You know how* [Professional Service Firm 'name'] *has a certain type of reputation attached to its brand; ours* [Professional Service Firm 'name'] *had a different type of reputation. It was a partnership model with the client type of approach, where we would hand hold and guide a lot more."* [PSF-17]

In another professional service firm, three interviewees reporting on their lived experiences have expressed that despite their reputation and efficiency, they sometimes work on the client rather than work with the client. An executive director reported that this is not a preferred scenario of the clients.

> *"A large number of our clients complain sometimes about the fact that we get the work done, but they feel like we have done it to them and not with them. You know because we drive very hard to get to a final answer and do not necessarily accommodate and spend the time to make them feel comfortable with what we are doing."* [PSF-14]

Overall a manager working for an professional service firm summarized each professional service firm has an way of doing things:

> *"There are established ways of doing things as* [PSF 'name']*"* [PSF-12]

This is in line with what the literature suggests, that large professional service firms in particular are highly regarded and hired for their values, approach in running projects, and task accomplishment (Cheese, et al., 2007). Werr et al. (1997) illustrated this by comparing the approach to change management processes of major professional service firms.

In summary, the discovered culture type of professional service firm culture is of surprising significance. This is because professional service firms are to a great extent engaged in GBTPs and influence those dependent on their mandate, role, and manner of work, and conduct the work. Thus, professional service firms may shape the project as well as project culture by their involvement. Though the involvement of professional service firms is temporal on the discretion of the organisation hosting the GBTP, it can actively manage the values and behaviours imposed by the professional service firm culture. In consequence it is important to understand both their organisational aspect as well as the individual aspect, but also the properties

determining the instantiation of a professional service firm culture in GBTPs. In particular the mandate of the professional service firms involved in GBTPs as well as their manner of work conduct were both found to influence the project culture. Further it is to be noted that depending on the construct of the GBPT, multiple professional service firms may be engaged in a GBTP and thus multiple professional service firm cultures instantiated in its project culture.

The next sub-section is to introduce the discovered culture type of ‘theme’ culture.

6.2.5 ‘Theme’ Culture

The culture type labelled a 'theme' culture represents a overarching ‘something’, a theme that shapes the behaviour and manner of work conduct of an GBTP upon which it, the ‘theme’ is recognised. The something can be a value or a management approach. Furthermore, the ‘theme’ culture comprises all activities and values that contribute to performance practices in accordance to the 'theme'. Examples of ‘themes’ cultures discovered in this study or reported in literature include a ‘BPM’ culture, ‘Compliance’ culture, a ‘Delivery’ culture, ‘Lean’ culture and ‘Safety’ culture.

Conceptually, a ‘theme’ culture can exist in parallel to any other culture type. Next to the project culture, a 'theme' culture may be instantiated in an organisational as well as industry culture and shape them, depending on its manifestation. In comparison to the other culture types discovered in this study the ‘theme’ culture is independent of a nation or region [national culture], organisational characteristics [organisational culture], environment [industry culture] or external parties involved [professional service firms]. Nevertheless these culture types might also be supportive of and driven by a ‘theme’ culture depending on their characteristics. Though an affinity for industry sectors to prefer certain ‘themes’ is acknowledged, it is to be clearly noted that a ‘theme’ culture and an industry culture are different and not interchangeable. Also, a ‘theme’ culture is not to be seen as an organisational subculture; it is a culture type on its own.

A theme and consequently ‘theme’ culture evolves over time. It first is developed and applied in a project, and then absorbed in to become characteristic of an organisation, and upon its success, it may be adopted by other organisations and later an industry or even across industries. An example of such a culture is ‘Lean’ (Womack & Jones, 2003), a popular management approach. Lean originates from the Toyota Production System (Ohno, 1988) developed in the 50’s and 60’s. By the 90’s Lean became an almost de-facto standard across the automotive industry though marketed under different but similar [Automotive Company] production system. This has lead to a ‘Lean’ theme culture (Mann, 2005).

An important aspect to ‘theme’ cultures is that if these are present in a GBTP, they are often deeply embedded in the organisation’s culture, receive total commitment and support by the management and are continuously promoted and revitalised.

> *“*[CEO] *came in and said we will do Six-Sigma and it happens”* [GM-07]

‘Theme’ cultures discovered in this study include a ‘BPM’ culture, a ‘Compliance’ culture, a ‘Delivery’ culture and a ‘Safety’ culture. Both the 'Safety' as well as 'BPM' culture was discussed in the following, while facet ‘Delivery and Integration’ of the vignette ‘GBTP Resources Company’ [GBTP Resources 1] presented in Chapter 7 suggests the instantiation of a ‘Delivery’ culture.

6.2.5.1 ‘Safety’ Culture

A ‘safety’ culture as discovered in this study embodies the value of safety throughout all layers of practice. It is understood to be the product of the values, attitudes, competencies, and patterns of behaviour around safety, which are shared and enacted across an organisation (Cox & Flin, 1998). This study discovered a ‘safety’ culture present in GBTPs situated in the aviation and resources sector. Literature also suggests a ‘safety’ culture being popular in complex and high-risk industries (Wiegmann, Zhang, Von Thaden, Sharma, & Gibbons, 2004) or the construction sector (Mayze & Bradley, 2008). A senior management practitioner reflects on the example of a GBTP situated in the aviation sector.

> *"Culture* [of GBTP Aviation 5] *as an airline was very much focused on safety."* [PSF-12]

It is to be noted that there are distinctly different occurrences of 'safety' cultures across an industry as well as within industries. As an example, in the aviation sector safety is a marketing instrument (Wittmer & Bieger, 2011), in the resources sector safe operations are the foci (Hudson, 2007). At the same time, safety across developed countries does not only given a higher priority it is better monitored by regulatory bodies, while in developing countries there is not such a focus as organisations that are concerned with ensuring employment and the provision of needs like food, water and shelter (Mearns & Yule, 2009), though there are exceptions, as the recent example of West Virginia coal mine tragedy in March 2012 shows[27].

How an interviewee managed a change and process improvement initiative, emphasising its manifestations and consistency across the organisation, experienced the 'safety' culture present in a resources company is exemplified in the following.

> *"The closest I have seen is* [Company - GBTP Resources 2] *safety culture. It does not matter where you go globally, it is the same* [..] *their drive or their perception to be driving safety* [..] *safety is, and you are probably aware, across* [Company - GBTP Resources 2] *globally a core foundation of every site. Safety is discussed at every meeting at every location, it is measured, it is monitored, the managers have it on their scorecards, on their incentives schemes, it is probably the only thing that is consistent across the* [Organisational entities of company - GBTP Resources 2]. *The tolerance of safety is paramount. And your longevity in the organisation is based around your performance or your business performance on safety.* [..] *There is not much flexibility on the safety, it does not matter where you go globally, it is the same."* [PSF-09]

He continued by highlighting the continuum of revitalization.

> *"Every site will have business improvement programs around safety."* [PSF-09]

The above is just one example; other senior management practitioners experienced the manifestation of a 'safety' culture enforced by strict rules throughout a GBTP or even similar organisations. Measures of safety reported include zero fatalities in the resources industry, as in the aviation sector, no loss of passengers or

[27] Fatality of 25 miners in a West Virginia coal mine http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp0dyn/content/article/2010/04/06/AR2010040601531.html Last assessed 9 July 2012

equipment. The vignette 'GBTP Airline' [GBTP Aviation 5] and 'GBTP Resources Company' [GBTP Resources 1] later in this chapter further illustrates how a 'safety' culture was instantiated in a GBTP.

6.2.5.2 'Business Process Management' Culture

A 'Business Process Management' [BPM][28] culture encapsulates a strong anchorage of BPM related values. A BPM culture is about the process, which implies an emphasis on how, rather the what (Davenport, 1994). In this study, a 'BPM' culture was discovered in GBTPs that adopted or followed a process oriented approach emphasising cross-functional systems and process orientation rather than a hierarchical order. Or as one interviewee stated:

> *"Processes as we all know processes they do not care about barriers, functional departments or functional structures"* [PSF-06]

Irrespective of the perspective taken, 'process thinking' is the focal point (Grover, Kettinger, & Teng, 2000) in a 'BPM' culture. The core values of 'BPM' culture that is predominantly recognised among senior management practitioners are: customer orientation, end-to-end orientation, improvement orientation and value-generation orientation (compare Reiter, Stewart, Bruce, Bandara, & Rosemann, 2010). Examples of BPM activities which manifest a 'BPM' culture include: process analysis, process improvement, process innovation, process modelling, process maturity, process awareness and training or process management. Data in this study revealed that particularly ERP system implementation follows a process-oriented approach.

The history of BPM tracks back to the work of Nordiseck (Nordsieck, 1934), and his process oriented company structure, although 'process fashion' was Hammer's (1990) seminal work on Business Process Reengineering [BPR]. BPM and process improvement has been ranked by organisations as top priority from 2005 to 2011 (Gartner, 2012). Moreover, professional service firms as well as IT vendors

[28] *"Business Process Management is a structured, coherent and consistent way of understanding, documenting, modeling, analysing, simulating, executing and continuously changing end-to-end business processes and resources in the light of their contribution to business improvement"* Australian BPM Community of Practice, www.bpm-collaboration.com Last assessed 6 September 2009

widely utilise BPM as a marketing instrument to promote their services and products (Smart, Maddern, & Maull, 2008) and consequently induce a 'BPM' culture to GBTPs.

The following example provides insights in a GBTP of a consumer goods company where a 'BPM' culture was present. The GBTP was about common processes, to integrate, standardise and utilise processes across the globe enabling and transforming the organisation for the environment it is operating in. A senior manager of this consumer goods company reflected:

> *"It was about knowing how to use the process to drive better business results* [..] *the work then was shifted to really think about the cross functional collaborative needs for the process, more of an end to end view and that was one of the things that you know allowed us to get beyond an individual organisation culture and look more broadly about what the company does to be successful."* [GM-14]

However he also recognized that the 'BPM' culture is not homogenous across the geographical locations by highlighting Europe as being very process centric.

> *"Europe in my general experience has been very process centric* [..] *frankly they have a number of processes in place because there are so many countries that make up that geography that if they do not have well defined processes the organisations have a tough time working together."* [GM-14]

Differences in the manifestation of a 'BPM' culture suggest dependencies within the predominant national culture, the educational system in place, but also the environment and organisational setting.

Related literature identified a 'BPM' culture and reports on the notion of a 'BPM' culture in an organisational transformation (Vom Brocke, Petry, Sinnl, & Osterberg Kirstensen, 2010). Reiter et al. (2010) conceptualise BPM from a practitioners' perspective, while others do similarly by reviewing past literature (Vom Brocke & Schmiedel, 2011) and Zari outlines *"a set of rules which can assist in the development of a BPM culture"* (1997, p. 79).

In the information systems space an IT culture means *"the values attributed to IT by a group"* (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006, p. 371) and would be classified as a 'theme' culture. The literature refers to patterns of IT culture (Kaarst-Brown &

Robey, 1999), IT user culture (Walsh, et al., 2010). or an information security culture (Alfawaz, 2011) that would be classified as a 'theme' culture. To be highlighted is the work of Kaarst-Brown and Robey (1999) which identified IT cultural patterns, namely: fearful IT culture, controlled IT culture, revered IT culture, demystified IT culture and an integrated IT culture. The authors further provide a model explaining the emergence and consequences of these cultural patterns. Another example would be an information culture referred in the work of Davenport and Prusak, which is understood as *"a pattern of behaviours and attitudes that express an organization's orientation toward information"* (1997, p. 84). It is to be noted that these latter occurrences of a 'theme' culture were not discovered as evident in this study on Global Business Transformation Projects.

In summary, the 'theme' culture types discovered in this study are a novel type of culture that is legitimised by providing a conceptual framework for a culture type manifested by a dominant overarching 'something', or a theme. In respect to project culture, a 'theme' culture has the capacity to conceptualise overarching and dominating themes that are of high relevance and delineate them rather then associating them to other culture types such as an organisational or industry culture. This in turn allows better understanding of the construct of culture present in a GBTP. It is to be noted that certain industries and types of organisations are more assertive to a theme as exemplified in the instance of a 'safety' culture.

The next section is to introduce and elaborate on cultural differences.

6.3 Cultural Differences

"Differences are not deficits to be changed and corrected, but gifts to be cherished and enjoyed" (Los Angeles Times, September 27, 1993 p. B5 in Moran, et al., 2007, p. 182). Cultural differences are understood as discrepancies between the recognised culture types, which in turn allow identification of culture types but their presence also leads to cultural diversity. These discrepancies are a function of culture types present in a GBTP or organisational setting. They are unique to a culture type

and become most tangible in people's behaviour. This is typified in the following extract from an interview with a senior management practitioner.

> *"It* [culture] *is how do people do things and how do they make decisions and how do they behave in front of each other"* [PSF-13]

Or, as Martin said: *"Difference implies that meaning emerges from a process of deferral. Therefore something is understood in a certain way because of what is* [apparently] *is not. Presence is understood, in part, by an analysis of what is absent"* (1992, p. 139). Also, cultural differences seen as *"systematic variations in norms and behaviours based on national, regional, historic and organisational affiliations"* (Niederman, et al., 2012, p. 22) are best to describe culture types.

Cultural differences become visible and are recognised in social or team processes that involve more than one culture type. How cultural differences are manifested in the manner of work conduct, maturity and knowledge of the project team as well as experience with other cultures is illustrated in the following example.

> *"The difference in how long do I work. How exact my work has to be, the chosen presentations. It depends on the maturity of the project team and how often they work together with international people, and what is their own knowledge and what knowledge do they buy in."* [PSF-04]

The interviewee continued by emphasizing on expectations in such international, culturally diverse environments as well as the role of the professional service firm involved.

> *"If you come to a country which is very international the team is very international, the expectations are much more higher. You as a consultant have to acknowledge that* [..] *as a consulting manager you have to send the right people to those places as well, to deliver the right quality."* [PSF-04]

Chapter 7, section 'Recognition' further details 'how' cultural differences are recognised.

Examples of cultural differences reported on in this study included those in which there are present two or more culture types of national culture. These were not only the cultural differences most reported on by interviewees but there is an extensive body of research that seeks to explain these differences, similar to the differences between the subcultures of an organisation. In this study, differences between the organisational culture and the professional service firm culture were seen to be instantiated in a GBTP. There were differences in the presence of a

'theme' culture in the project culture of a GBTP. There were also cultural differences detected which were determined by environment in which the GBTP was situated. These environmental elements included globalization or economic development as an interviewee highlighted:

> *"We had this different development status in the countries which had a real high effect on the project"* [PSF-08]

The following provides an illustration of cultural difference by national culture and cultural differences by the subcultures of the organisational culture instantiated in a GBTPs project culture.

National Culture: Senior management practitioners interviewed for this study recognised in the first instance, cultural differences based upon the values or social practices found or absent in a nation, region or ethnic group, elements are characteristic of the *national culture* culture type. The differences between these elements allowed identification of the national cultures instantiated in the project culture triggered by stereotypical expectations of a national culture, differences detected between national cultures that senior management practitioners engaged with or differences in the senior management practitioner's own national cultural background with others in the GBTP.

Examples reported on by interviewees included cultural differences recognised by the level of detail required, the manner and transparency in communication, the stated objectives for work conduct, or in the expressed and observed habits and attitudes of individuals participating in the GBTP.

A director of a professional service firm compared the UK with Germany.

> *"In Germany the people in the project, they were very detailed. They wanted to know everything in detail so they spend a lot of time in documenting and defining. In the UK it was more practical training, nothing was documented they did it more from the, how can you say, from the stomach."* [PSF-06]

Another director of the same professional service firm noted

> *"My experience in China was that in the Chinese culture with the Chinese colleagues working of the project on customer side. They do not want to set clears targets because with clear targets they also bring themselves in a position of being responsible for the outcome. They want to be very flexible or during the project to change the target, to change the objectives, and not to take over responsibility."* [PSF-01]

The vignette 'Cultural Differences' in Chapter 7 provides an illustration of how cultural differences on the level of national culture were dealt with in a GBTP.

Cross-cultural research has made great efforts to explain the cultural difference between national cultures, in particular the seminal work by Hofstede (1980), but also Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) and the GLOBE project (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfmann, 2002). Exemplary cases in the IS space include the work of Hasan and Ditsa (1999) on the impact of culture on the adoption of IT, Walsham and Sahay (1999) on geographical information systems introduction, highlighting how the cultural context affects the interpretation and appropriation of technology and more recently Sherer et al. (2011) on cultural differences in IT implementations. Myers and Tan (2002), Ford et al. (2003), and Leidner and Kayword (2006) provide a great overview of IS research on national culture. Though generally cultural differences on the level of national cultures were found to have negative effects on project performance in IS projects, resulting in time overruns, budget overruns, high costs, and low system quality (DeLone, Espinosa, Lee, & Carmel, 2005).

The scope of this study was not to examine, explain, or interpret cultural differences reported on by interviewees or discusses their implications. Thus a theoretical view such as Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of culture was not applied but has potential for future research.

Organisational Culture: Cultural differences on an organisational level mostly refer to different subcultures or the anchorage of the organisational culture instantiated in the project culture of an GBTP, with the exception of pre-, post-, or de-merger activities. Examples for the latter are the formerly two companies Thyssen and Krupp, which merged in 1997 to ThyssenKrupp. Despite located only 40 km apart, their corporate cultures prior to their merger in 1997 were significantly different coined by a history of *"140 years in fierce competition* [.. and] *the greatest obstacle to genuine integration"* (Berger, 2004, p. 66). Another example is that of automotive car corporations Daimler and Chrysler with their well-known merger [1998] and following de-merger [2007]; cultural differences between both were very evident by the understanding of the term 'quality'. *"At Chrysler, quality meant that customers did not complain. At Mercedes, quality was defined by the demands people placed in their own work"* (Berger, 2004, p. 64). In practice this was

manifested in the aim for perfection [Daimler] compared to 'just' meeting demands [Chrysler].

In this study cultural differences of organizational nature present in the project culture of a GBTP were mostly discovered upon the organizational culture's level of anchorage or between organizational entities. These differences included observations between subsidiaries in different regions, the organisations maturity, the experience and sophistication of individuals and groups involved in the GBTP, or dependent of the products, service the organisational units provide.

An interviewee illustrates the differences between the organisational subcultures of the sites [Site A, B, & C] involved in a GBTP situated in the resources sector [GBTP Resources 2] in respect to the change management and process improvement initiative he was leading. It is to be added that all sites were located in the same country.

> *"*[Site A - GBTP Resources 2] *is highly evolved on their people development skills. And the deployment of the program down there is tenfold any of the other* [Company - GBTP Resources 2] *sites. When you go to* [Site B - GBTP Resources 2]*, their corporate team was very pro, yet their mine sites have been very, very poor at adopting and taking on the change management program or the BPM process.* [Site C - GBTP Resources 2] *are like our Queensland* [State in Australia]*, they still think they can solve everything technically without getting the people involved.* [Site A - GBTP Resources 2] *understands the need for the people to be involved.* [Site B - GBTP Resources 2] *have got the people but have not got the technical, and then* [Site C - GBTP Resources 2] *have got the technical and have not done a lot about the change management and people deployment."* [PSF-09]

The facets 'Adaption to Environment', 'Delivery and Integration' and 'Language Proficiency' of vignette 'GBTP Resources Company' [GBTP Resources 1] presented in Chapter 7 provide further illustrations of cultural differences between different types and how these were recognized, understood and consequently managed.

Independent of the kind of cultural differences, data suggested that it is of utmost importance to practice to recognise and understand the difference between the culture types expressed in a GBTP, as one interviewee said:

> *"I think the key challenge to working together is having different cultural values, so you bring together a team of Vietnamese, Australian, Germans because of their different values and cultural backgrounds, it might*

be not easy for them to actually work together, because they just have different approaches." [GM-06]

In summary, GBTPs by nature imply have contact and interaction between different culture types in a culturally diverse environment. The cultural differences recognised by interviewees brought national culture to the foreground. However, despite the prominence of cultural differences between national cultures, differences between and across the other culture types discovered in this study are not less import. In short, cultural differences as discovered in this study and independent of their occurrence are inherent to the construct of culture in GBTP and these observations lead to the conjectures:

- The accumulation of culture types leads to cultural differences
- Cultural differences lead to cultural diversity
- Cultural differences allow identification of culture types

Literature highlights cultural differences not only as a source of conflict (Sarker & Sahay, 2004; Richardson, 2005), but also *"possibly the single biggest factor that global teams need to address is cultural differences"* (Olson & Olson, 2000, p. 169). The recognition and utilisation of differences, in turn, is reported to be of instrumental value towards achieving organisational objectives (Cox, 1993; Ely & Thomas, 2001). Thus it is required of them to be aware of and understand cultural differences (Ang et al., 2007) in order to deal with them.

This section identified and explained cultural differences and also illustrated these with the patterns of discovered cultural differences. This was not an exhaustive overview or a prescriptive explanation of all cultural differences that may be present in a GBTP or any other organisational setting, nor was this scope of this study, but the presence of so many culture types in a GBTP leads to GBTP cultural diversity The next section of this chapter elaborates on the element of cultural diversity.

6.4 Cultural Diversity

Cultural diversity occurs by the presence of multiple culture types in an organisational setting. In the context of this study it is best described by the

accumulation of culture types instantiated in a project culture and recognised upon differences between those culture types. Each of these refers to differences in meaning; values, behaviour and work conduct within or between different groups of people. Cultural diversity is one element of a GBTPs construct of culture as depicted in Figure 6-1.

Diversity stands for the aggregation of differences among members of a group or organisation (Olsen & Martins, 2012). Literature determines cultural diversity by the configuration of a project team on a variety of demographic dimensions (Roosevelt, 1991; Tsui & Gutek, 1999; Miller, et al., 2000; Ely, 2004; Olsen & Martins, 2012) though most of these described elements related to the culture type of national culture. Miller et al. (2000), in their research, distinguish between dimensions of diversity, which are visible, such as the ethnic background, nationality, gender and age of involved parties in contrast to the underlying properties, which include values, skills and knowledge as well as cohort membership.

In practice it is not unusual for GBTP to encompass radically different cultures, which particularly applies for mergers and acquisitions since, *"bodies of unwritten laws, values, norms must then be melded together to form a single, homogenous culture out of two corporate entities"* (Berger, 2004, p. 63).

The context of this study is GBTPs involve both internal and external participants, span across multiple culture types and are thus more culturally diverse. An executive director of a professional service firm illustrates the cultural diversity of a project team he was a member of highlighting the different cultural background of key individuals involved as well as their organisational association.

> *"We had there a project team consisting of my company* [Professional Service Firm 'name'] *and the clients. On our side, we had me from the US with a German background, we had Italian and Spanish colleagues - already three nations and on client side it was a German, the top manager was from Singapore and the second in line from Brazil. So all six people, all six different nationalities."* [PSF-15]

The excerpt above illustrates the instantiation of at least six national cultures, an organizational culture and a professional service firm culture. Though in the foreground of interviewees when highlighting the cultural diversity of a GBPT is often the national culture as exemplified in the following.

> *"One thing in common is that they* [GPTPs] *were culturally diverse sort of, members themselves came from all kind of different regions and nationalities and cultures."* [GM-12]

The remainder of this section first elaborates on benefits and constrains of cultural diversity before introducing a typology of diversity derived in this study.

Benefits: Data revealed that the majority of interviewees highlighted that cultural diversity greatly benefits GBTP and may add creativity, since individuals, depending on their cultural background, have different ways of doing things, and of solving problems.

A program director pointed out that the GBTPs he is managing is not on the fringes of culturally diversity 'just' by fortuitousness. Instead, the organisation strategically planned for cultural diversity when initiating the GBTP, which also helps to address issues in the culturally diverse environment it operates in.

> *"In setting up the project team we made a point of having the project team diverse. So we have got thirty-six different nationalities on the project team so you do not have any one culture dominating the project team and you have got efficient diversity in cultures to interface with our different businesses. So that inherently helps address any issue that you have in diverse cultures."* [GM-11]

Moreover the above-mentioned GBTP engaged with three different processional service firms as well as its organizational culture compromised multiple sub-cultures of the different divisions and project sites.

Another director of a professional service firm added:

> *"A variety of backgrounds always brings a certain spice into projects."* [PSF-05]

In the following example an executive director of a professional service firm stated how cultural diversity was introduced on purpose by the professional service involved in the GBTP. This in turn transformed the project team and the hosting organisation towards a more open and global mindset, thus enabling them to deal with different cultures and operate in a culturally diverse environment.

> *"The South African business* [South African Division - GBTP Consumer 8] *is isolated* [..] *the majority of the business people on the project is South African. It was quite interesting to see that there were very few black people on the project. A large number of ours* [Professional service firm – 'name] *were black because we really focus on diversity. Also the large number of Spanish and Indian resources that we were bringing onto the*

> *project was to expose them on a cultural point of view to very different cultures and working in a different way"* [PSF-14]

She continued highlighting how the project and organisational culture changed towards a 'global' culture.

> *"There is now a lot more sharing of cultures, opening up to different ideas, doing things differently, eating different food than there was eight months ago. So yes I think we* [Professional service firm 'name'] *are helping them* [GBTP Consumer 8 - South African Division] *as an organisation to actually also change into a more is it a global you know, expecting other cultures and other ways of doing things a lot more. And opening themselves up to new ideas and new ways of doing things."* [PSF-14]

Literature confirms that cultural diversity is an asset to performance, that facilitates problem solving and decision-making (Cox & Blake, 1991) as well as being associated with superior profitability (Grant, 1987) and it is more innovative and creative (Miller, et al., 2000). In other words a *"culturally diverse workforces create competitive advantage through better decisions"* (Cox & Blake, 1991, p. 51) and solving problems (Miller, et al., 2000), while at the same time enhancing the organisations flexibility, *"the organisations becomes more fluid and adaptable"* (Cox & Blake, 1991, p. 52). Thus, diversity increases the pool of perspectives, styles, knowledge and insights that the involved individuals and parties can contribute to the GBTP (Cox & Blake, 1991; Cox, 1993).

However, literature also suggests that cultural diversity in the workforce has both positive and negative effects on organisational performance (Olsen & Martins, 2012). Thus *"diversity appears to be a double-edged sword, increasing the opportunity for creativity as well as the likelihood that group members will be dissatisfied and fail to identify with the group"* (Milliken & Martins, 1996, p. 403). The work of Tsui and Gutek (1999) further distinguish the effect of diversity on performance, and their study shows that, on a production level, it appears to have a negative effect as homogenous teams perform better for production tasks while they assert a positive influence of diverse groups on intellectual and creative tasks. Also they found that diverse groups experience lower cohesion among group members.

Constraints: At the same time, data suggested cultural diversity does raise complexity of a GBTP, which leads to constraints as a manager of a professional service firm highlight.

> *"The more different cultural point of views influence the process the more complicated it gets"* [PSF-12]

He further notes that, based on his lived experience, work done by the culturally homogenous tend to be less complicated and more efficient.

> *"If you are German, if you would get together with a couple of German colleagues in an organisation to define a process, the process will be much less complicated and much more straightforward than if you include myself, a Singaporean colleague, one from the Emirates and a South African. Because just by having been through the same educational system, sharing the same value systems you will be able to get to an agreement much easier with your colleagues and define the process in quite a straight forward way."* [PSF-12]

Similar findings by Cox show that *"increased diversity presents challenges to business leaders who must maximize the opportunities that it presents while minimizing its cost"* (Cox, 1991, p. 46). Individuals tend to have a preference to interact with others with whom they share beliefs, values, language or appearance than with others who are different (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998; Miller, et al., 2000, p. 20).

A culturally homogenous group is highly unlikely in a GBTP, as its complexity and heterogeneity stems from its geographical spread, the involvement of many different organisational entities and multiple national cultures. Constraints due to cultural diversity reported are mostly of a temporary nature until the organisation or, as in this study, the project team adapted to them (Barkema, Bell, & Pennings, 1996). These may include different behaviours or languages spoken by involved parties as reported in this study. To overcome this constraints might be a difficult and challenging process when project teams are internationally distributed, particularly in respect to interaction and communication patterns (Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000; Cramton, 2001).

In practice, managing cultural diversity in this study was discovered to be constraint by neglecting to consider the different culture types present and a lack of awareness and understanding of the construct of culture. The following extract is from the perspective of a director working for a professional service firm in the

capacity of the key account manager, it illustrates that cultural diversity was not effectively managed and resulted in serious issues between involved parties.

> *"It was a project mainly driven by Europeans, the project manager was a native South American and some of the project members were also from North America. There have been a number of cultural influenced situations, especially with project manager from South America, who had a very different working style compared to the Europeans and also compared to the US team. The company was very much influenced; the company culture was very much influenced by Europeans culture. So it was very technical and very technology focused and target focused, organisational culture. But the country culture especially of the project manager was a more relaxed one. I think it has to do something with this working style this culturally influenced working style. In the end this situation escalated and the customer changed the project manager because there was simply no fit."* [PSF-01]

In summary the double-edged diversity highlights its complexity and importance to understand culture.

Typology of Diversity: To better understand cultural diversity and classify GBTPs the following is to introduce a typology of cultural diversity. At the beginning of this study, the research stated that GBTPs are international involving at least two or more geographical dispersed locations, or countries with different cultures present. The data revealed that cultural diversity in a GBTP does not require geographically dispersed locations or countries. Rather, cultural diversity is characterised by the culture types instantiated in the environment in which the GBTP is situated and through the cultures of the parties involved. Analysing the interviewees reporting's on the culture types instantiated in GBTPs and comparing the GBTPs characteristics suggested that GBTPs are either truly global, global by nation, or global by involvement. Each kind is described in the following examples.

The *'Truly Global'* GBTPs are in line with the initial understanding and definition of GBTPs. These span across multiple regions and involve people from, as well as in different physical locations in multiple countries, and globally geographical dispersed locations. A director of a professional service firm summarises such a *'Truly Global'* GBTP:

> *"I would say at least twenty different nations* [..] *with almost no natives on that project* [..] *despite it is a* [Country] *I guess the amount of* [Country] *staff on the project was below 10 to 20 per cent."* [PSF-05]

A more detailed illustration of a *'Truly Global'* GBTP is given in the vignette 'GBTP Resources Company' [GBTP Resources 1] in the following section and in Chapter 7.

It is to be noted that GBTPs classified as *'Truly Global'* embrace characteristics of both types of GBTPs *'Global by Nation'* and *'Global by Involvement'* introduced in the following. Also, GBTPs which are both *'Global by Nation'* or *'Global by Involvement'* could be classified as 'local' business transformation projects, given the fact that they are bound to one country; however the remainder of this study keeps the prefix 'G' for 'Global' as indicator for cultural diversity.

The term *'Global by Nation'* refers to GPTPs located in one single nation, but has a workforce that is culturally diverse, meaning multiple culture types of national culture are present in the nation and instantiated in the GBTPs project culture. GBTP of the type *'Global by Nation'* at an infra-national level become more prevalent given the increasing multicultural societies present in many nations with a strong immigrant base, caused in part by globalisation. But there are also nations diverse by nature given a multiplicity of ethnic groups within a single nation.

Nations diverse by nature may evolve over time, due to colonisation whether ancient or recent migration. Examples of such nations are Malaysia, Sri Lanka and South Africa. As a result of this local mixture, a GBTP located and resourced from residents of that nation will involve multiple cultures. Examples of such nations reported on by interviewees in this study as culturally diverse include, though not limited to, the USA, Singapore, Malaysia, South Africa and Australia. In Australia, for example, according to the 2011 census[29] 24.6 per cent of the Australian population was born overseas and of 43.1 per cent at least one parent was born overseas. Chervier (2009), in her work assessing the Swiss culture, illustrates the diversity in the national culture of Switzerland given the different languages [French, German and Italian] and their dialects as well as geography in middle of Europe, containing lots of mountains dividing the Latin and Mediterranean cultures.

[29] Australian Bureau of Statistics: 2011 Census http://www.abs.gov.au/websitedbs/censushome.nsf/home/CO-59?opendocument&navpos=620 Last assessed 24 July 2012

Examples of GBPTs in this study, which are *'Global by Nation',* are shown below. One interviewee highlighted the cultural diversity of projects in United States:

> *"Projects in the United States, all these projects had one thing in common they were culturally diverse."* [GM-12]

Another interviewee, director of a professional service firm added:

> *"It is a non-international project by definition, you have a lot of nationalities on a domestic project so to say because there are a lot of people who migrated to the United States, you have Indians, you have Chinese, you have Japanese, you have all European countries in there so it is not really international project, everyone is having a US passport but nobody was born and raised in the United States. That is why you have pretty much any time you have an international project when you work over there."* [PSF-05]

Malaysia, for instance, is another example where projects are by nature culturally diverse on account of its distinctly different ethnic groups: the Malay, the Malaysian Chinese origin and the Malaysian Indians. As one Malaysian interviewee [Malaysian Chinese origin] explained:

> *"Coming from Malaysia it does not need to be a multinational company. It could be a Malaysian company because in Malaysia we are a multicultural and multiracial so if you pick any good-sized Malaysian company you would have that already."* [PSF-16]

Another Malaysian interviewee [Malaysian-Indian ethnic background, who grew up in the UK] set this in a business context:

> *"Put a Malaysian in a situation where they have to work with a British or an American shall we say business counterpart, if that Malaysian were Malay he would react in a particular way. If that Malaysian were Chinese he would obviously be much more business orientated, much more negotiated in his work. If he was Indian, the Indians are sort of like segregated."* [GM-13]

Similar to Malaysia is South Africa, which encompasses multiple ethnic groups, these, as a director of an automotive company stressed, the challenges of GBTPs situated in South Africa.

> *"South Africa was extreme in that* [cultural diversity] *in the beginning I thought there is only the black-white conflict resulting out of the apartheid time.* [..] *But the closer you looked you actually found out that on the one hand black is not black. There are eleven different tribes that certainly sometimes do not even talk to each other, even fighting and stuff like that. But then again the most surprising effect on me was that even in South Africa the white/white effect of the British and Dutch, colonial times was unbelievably*

> *strong at preventing the project process because of cultural differences between the Dutch and British people."* [GM-10]

In the example of South Africa it is to be noted that the history of the country, particularly the apartheid and resulting policies such as the 'Black Economic Empowerment [BEE]'[30], is still affecting both the social and professional lives, adding another layer of complexity.

The GBTPs classified as *'Global by Involvement'* are characterised by a multinational project team membership, which introduce different culture types. These culture types are mostly national culture where the team members come from different countries and thus having a different cultural background. It also may involve the introduction of a professional service firm culture or 'theme' culture if professional service firms are involved in the GBTP or if the business itself is immersed or adopting in a theme culture. In difference to GPTPs *'Global by Nation'*, these involve parties are from different nations with a distinct cultural background, while the *'Global by Nation'* teams are drawn from staff in one nation. Both are physically located in one country. In the *'Global by Involvement'*, team members are flown into the nation whereas in the *'Global by Nation'*, team members are drawn from residents in the nation.

A prime example for a GBTP 'Global by Involvement' is the following being located in one country involving individuals or groups from multiple countries with different cultural backgrounds given their skills or expertise as well as multiple external parties.

> *"I was the project manager* [GBTP Engineering 3] *for the construction of a* [..] *plant in Malaysia. It was a Japanese main contractor, a Turkish contractor, a German client and then the* [Client] *of Malaysia was the JB partner. So the German client was bringing the technology in to set up the plant. The* [Client] *of Malaysia would be the financier and the Japanese contractor was the project financier and the Turkish contractor."* [GM-13]

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[30] BEE *"is an integrated and coherent socio-economic process. It is located within the context of the country's nation transformation program, namely the RDP* [Reconstruction and Development Program]. *It is aimed at redressing the imbalances of the past by seeking to substantially and equitably transfer and confer ownership, management and control of South Africa's financial and economic resources to the majority of the citizens. It seeks to ensure broader and meaningful participation in the economy by black people to achieve sustainable development and prosperity." Black Economic Empowerment Commission Report* (2001). Johannesburg: Black Economic Enpowerment Commision.

Another illustration of an interviewee showed how staff induced the cultural diversity, present in a GBTP. This can be either on purpose, by requirements such as skills, or experiences, as well as the need for local involvement as shown below or by coincidence.

> *"Usually it* [cultural diversity] *is done by design, in* [GBTP Government 2] *each person would be bringing a different type of experience to the table. In my case it was because I was effectively from the private sector and from a developing country* [Malaysia]. *In the case of the Dane, it was more because he was in information management systems and the Danish government had implemented, you know, a lot of e-government systems. The Brit was included because the UK government was co-funding the project. The Mozambican was because he was a Mozambique national. The project was in Mozambique and required nationals to participate in the project."* [GM-13]

In summary, cultural diversity is a result of the aggregation of different culture types instantiated in the project culture and cultural differences between these, which are both, determined by the reach of and environment in which the GBTP is situated. Diversity is associated with benefits as well as constraints, both are suggested to be valued, respected and dealt with actively. There were three distinct types of culturally diverse GBTPs discovered in this study: the truly global, global by nation, or global by involvement. This shows that a culturally diverse environment is not limited to *'Truly Global'* GBTPs. Cultural diversity can be seen as a salient property of GBTP, *"in every area of social action [however small in terms of population or geographical territory] there is evidence of diversity"* (McSweeney, 2009, p. 25). As a result of this pervasiveness of cultural diversity in GBTP, the findings of this study are conjectured to be generalisable and hence applicable beyond the scope of this study to almost all business transformation projects and organisations.

The next section provides insights into the data generated by illustrating the theoretical model of construct of culture with two vignettes of GBTPs interviewees reported their lived experience on.

6.5 Vignettes: Construct of Culture

The following two vignettes are to illustrate the empirical grounding of the discovered 'Theoretical Model of the Construct of Culture' and its elements, culture types classified in the 'Typology of Culture Types', cultural differences and cultural diversity. The focus is thereby on discerning the culture types instantiated in the GBTPs project culture rather than detail them and their relationships on a micro level. The vignettes do not introduce new theoretical constructs.

The first vignette 'GBTP Airline' [GBTP Aviation 5] provides insights into an airline's GBTP describing its project culture by the culture types instantiated from the perspectives of senior management practitioners working for that airline.

The second vignette 'GBTP Resources Company' [GBTP Resources 1] provides further insights into a resources company's GBTP. This is further discussed in the next chapter to illustrate the processual model derived from this study. Moreover, insights from the second vignette contain the perspectives of interviewees working for the resources company as well as consultants working for two different engaged professional service firms.

6.5.1 Vignette One: GBTP Airline

The following vignette exemplifies the construct of culture of an airline's GBTP [GBTP Aviation 5]. The airline is headquartered in Latin America[31] with operations across North America, Central America and South America.

[31] Note: The culture type of national culture in this vignette is aggregated to 'Latin America', which embraces all national cultures present in Latin America in order to remain anonymity of the GBTP reported on by interviewees.

ID	**GBTP Aviation 5**
Scope	Process Improvement & Reorganisation
Type	Truly Global
HQ	Latin America
Role of IT	IS Support
Industry Sector	Aviation
Interviewees	Project Manager - Internal [GM-06] Project Manager - Internal [GM-08] Project Manager - Internal [PSF-12]

Table 6-2: Characteristics GBTP Aviation 5

Project Culture: The project culture of the airline's GBTP was reportedly shaped by a strongly established organisational culture, the national culture of the country in which the organisations headquarters is located, an aviation industry culture as well as a 'safety' theme culture. A professional service firm culture was not discovered to be instantiated as the, interviewees did not report on the active involvement of the professional service firm. Overall the project culture of the airlines GBTP referred by the interviewees as organisational culture in the following excerpt was experienced as almost the same as the predominant national culture in place.

> *"I would probably say that* [Airline - GBTP Aviation 5]*, the organisational culture was very much the same as the national culture.* [..] *the culture is very ,consistent throughout, which is more of a Latin culture than an organisational culture."* [GM-08]

Figure 6-3 below provides and overview of the culture types and their properties instantiated in 'GBTP Aviation 5' project culture. The following then elaborates on each culture type instantiated and their properties.

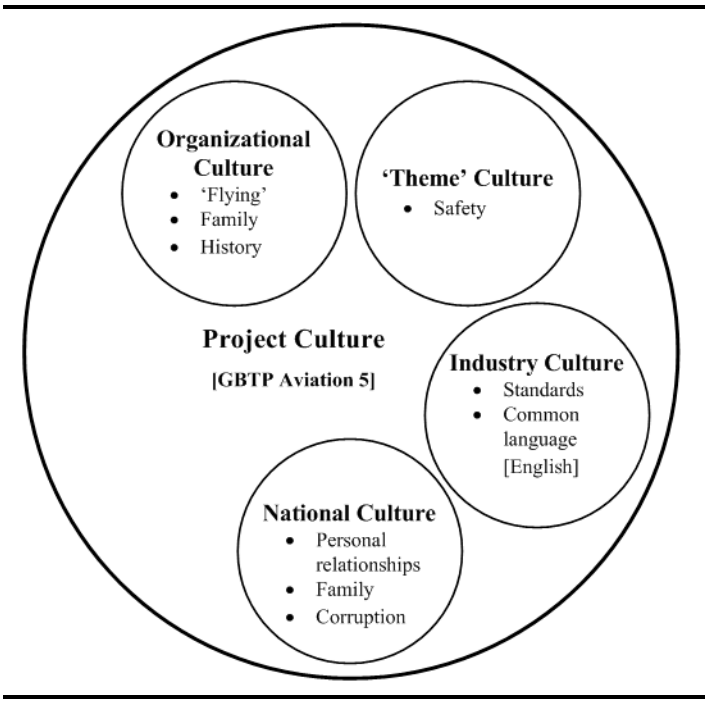

Figure 6-3: Project Culture GBTP Aviation 5

National Culture: The culture type of national culture was instantiated in the project culture. The actual national cultures were reported as fairly similar, and mostly national cultures of Latin America. The comments emphasised how relationships and family both influence the decision making process within the GBTP as shown by the following extract:

> *"South America I think the challenge is, it is in-transparent and very relationship driven, so family is really important and friendship is really important, and a lot of things happen, or a lot of decisions are being made in small circles of families or friends, so even the major companies. There is a lot of in-transparent decision making and business decisions going on, because it is much more relationship driven. And then also corruption is a big topic in South America."* [GM-06]

The interviewees' generalised the actual national culture as South American or Latin Culture rather than labelling it by the country name.

Organisational Culture: The airline's organisational culture was reportedly centred around the airline's main service or, as one interviewee, expressed:

> *"Make planes fly"* [PSF-12]

He further detailed the values employees working for the airline shared while delineating between those shared across the industry and the one's specific to the airline being the fascination to make planes flying.

> *"That organisation was very much driven by the fact that people working in the airline industry are very often dreamers. They are very often people who are fascinated by the technology or fascinated by the speed or fascinated by the fact that the plane is going to take off and fly and this would have a very important effect on the organisation. The objective of the organisation was not so much show the value creation. It was not so much about um, about making it; you know the biggest and the best company in the world. It was about preserving the very fact that it was an airline. That it was enabling people to fly in the skies." [PSF-12]*

Another interviewee added the airline being alike a family despite its size.

> *"is obviously a proud family company and but compared to other family run companies it is probably fairly large."* [GM-08]

In addition, the airline's organisational culture was reportedly shaped by its history, being not only one of the oldest airlines in the world but also their operational processes had barely changed since the airline was established in the early twentieth century.

> *"I have seen a lot of processes that were defined at the inception of* [Airline - GBTP Aviation 5] *that later on had never been questioned by anybody and despite being very inefficient and out-dated and in need of improvement."* [PSF-12]

Overall the airlines organizational culture was reported to centre around flying, making planes fly; shaped by its history and comparable with a family.

Industry Culture: The presence of an industry culture in the airline's GBTP was recognized by the high degree of standardization as well as high level of English proficiency which is also as found within of the aviation sector. The following is to illustrate that, one interviewee said:

> *"The airline industry most remarkably is extremely standardized. You have two major manufactures of airplanes, which dictate the way the planes have to be operated. Task there is not very much flexibility or liberty from the part of the management of the airline companies to do things differently. So in that sense, you know, airline industry um… projects are done pretty much in the same way across the world when you talk about the mainstream civil airlines."* [PSF-12]

He continued by highlighting the strong command of English, despite Spanish being the local language in the headquarters and across most of the airlines network.

> *"People working in the airline industry, maybe in other industries in Latin America it is different, but at least in my industry everybody spoke perfect English."* [PSF-12]

'Theme' Culture: A strong 'safety' culture was instantiated in the project culture of the airline's GBTP. The safety culture's existence in this company became evident to all employees on a 'black day' in the airline's history when a plane crashed, which led to the airline's first passenger loss in its history. An interviewee elaborated what safety meant for this airline and how the dramatic distress of the plane crash reinforced the airline's values on an organisational level.

> *"It was fascinating to see what happened last year,* [Airline - GBTP Aviation 5] *culture was very, as an airline was very much focussed on safety. Now you will tell me that safety is a hygienic factor and every airline needs to have safety. Yet there are some airlines that take it a little bit more seriously than others.* [Airline - GBTP Aviation 5] *was all about let's make sure that we do not kill a single passenger that ever flies with us. That was true until* [date] *when one of the planes crashed in* [city] *you could see how the organisation got very strongly together to overcome this absolutely tragic event in the life of the organisation. And by being such an old airline, by having such a strong culture, you could see how people were able to get together and work together. Even people that before, you know in any organisation you would have political games and some representatives not talking that much to others but this particular event, combined with the fact that the organisation did have a very strong culture, made everyone in the organisation come together, work together and overcome that difficult moment."* [PSF-12]

He further detailed how individuals throughout the organisation changed their behaviours, stayed back, neglected their personal interests and worked together to overcome this disastrous event together.

> *"What I noticed is that to give you a very complete example, you had vice president commercial who would be very aggressive, very political person and would basically be a solo player.* [..] *he would not cooperate with any other department usually, the planning department and the maintenance department etcetera but after this particular event, driven by the fact that this company was all about making planes fly, this particular person was able to forget about you know, his hidden agenda, his personal goals."* [PSF-12]

In summary, this vignette has shown how the project culture of the airline's GBTP was constituted by the culture types of national culture, organisational culture, industry culture of the aviation sector, and a 'Safety' culture ['theme' culture] instantiated in the GBTP.

6.5.2 Vignette Two: GBTP Resources Company

The following vignette shows the construct of culture of a resources company's GBTP [GBTP Resources 1]. This is the first part of a vignette; the second part is presented in Chapter 7 to illustrate the process for managing culture.

This GBTP was headquartered in Asia and, when initiated, was expected to have a significant impact to the wider organisation since it

> *"cuts across ostensibly forty thousand people, thirty eight countries, and it does have a bit of systems change which is then very much a hard forced change through the organisation."* [GM-11]

Table 6-3 provides an overview of [GBTP Resources 1] key characteristics.

ID	**GBTP Resources 1**
Scope	Global Business Transformation & ERP Implementation
Type	Truly Global
HQ	Asia
Role of IT	IS Implementation
Industry Sector	Resources
Interviewees	Project Manager - External [PSF-03] Engagement Manager - External [PSF-05] Project Manager - External [PSF-14] Program Director - Internal [GM-11] Project Manager - Internal [GM-12]

Table 6-3: Characteristics GBTP Resources 1

The resources company's GBTP was 'truly global', not only involving project locations in North America, South America, Europe, Africa, Asia and Australia but also multiple professional service firms were engaged. The core project team contained approximately 300 people with various cultural backgrounds and from different organisational entities. Figure 6-4 below shows the resources company's GBTP's geography, highlighting the project headquarter and its core sites.

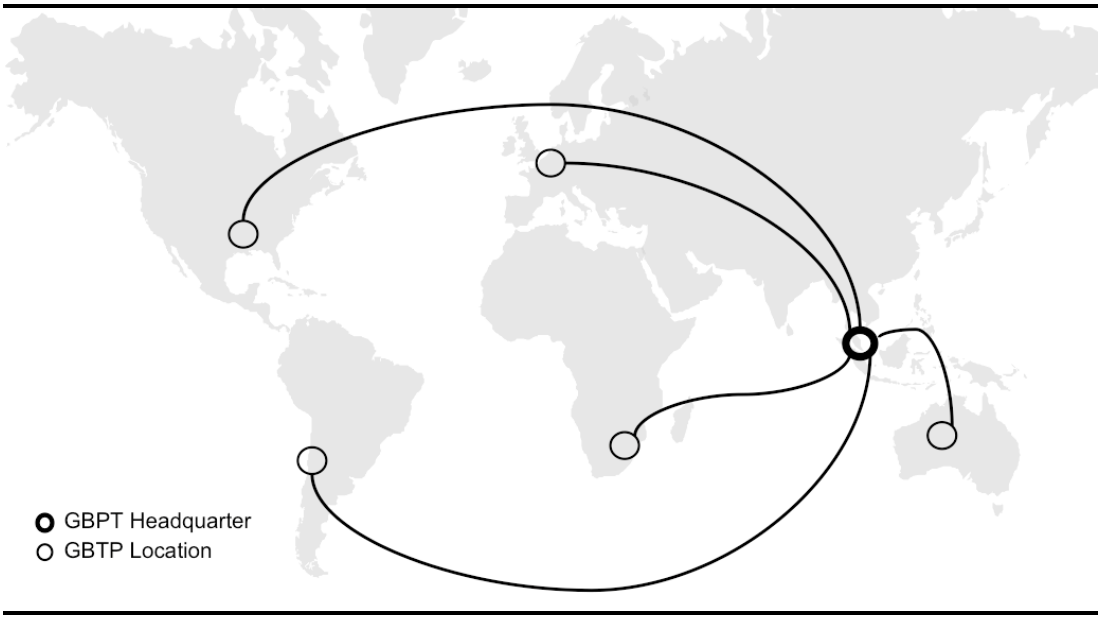

Figure 6-4: Geographically Dispersed Locations [GBTP Resources 1]

Project Culture: The project culture of the resources company's GBTP was reportedly shaped by a strongly established organisational culture, the presence of multiple national cultures and influenced by the expression of an industry culture and a 'safety' culture. It was also influenced by the cultures of the involved professional service firms involved in the GBTP. The project culture of the resources company was centred on standardization and simplification to an extent that even an executive director of a professional service firm engaged on this GBTP was in favour of it:

> *"The shared values around standardization and simplification. That were those things you know, I never thought that it would happen, but even now I still go back and I actually are quite now looking back. I am quite impressed how much the guys really managed to instil those disciplines and those shared values into the team."* [PSF-14]

Figure 6-5 below illustrates these culture types making up the project culture of the GBTP.

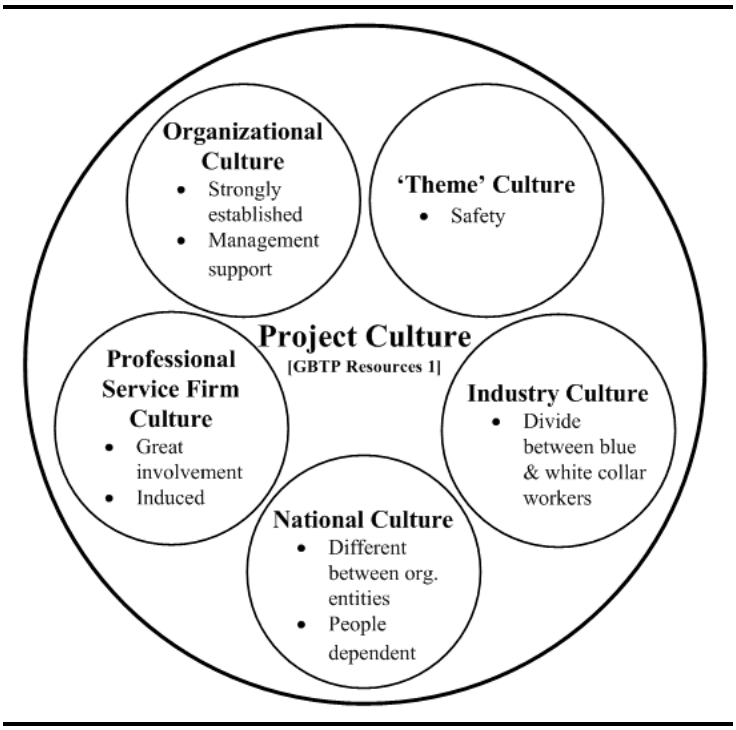

Figure 6-5: Project Culture GBTP Resources 1

The following shows the culture types instantiated in the resources company's GBTP project culture.

National Culture: The resources company's GBTP was reported to entail multiple national cultures. This is not only because of the GBTP's geographical location [Figure 6-4] but also because the involvement of project members with a variety of cultural backgrounds as an interviewee highlights:

> *"We have got thirty-six different nationalities on the project team so you do not have any one culture dominating the project team"* [GM-11]

Another interviewee, a director of a professional service firm, emphasised that the project culture was dependent on the individuals involved and their background.

> *"It really depends on the people that come together, what their background is"* [PSF-05]

Also, the culture type of national culture was recognised by the cultural differences between the resources company's involved divisions. The behaviour of personnel in these divisions was reportedly often influenced by the national culture in which the divisions were situated.

> *"The guys from the* [Division Europe - GBTP Resources 1] *point of view that had more of a European mindset versus the guys from* [Division

> Australia - GBTP Resources 1] *that were more Australian.* [..] *combined in almost a neutral area like* ['country' Asia] *what I sometimes picked up is you know, there was a level of I suppose arrogance in everyone who came from the* [Division Europe - GBTP Resources 1] *versus the guys that came from operations* [Division Australia & South Africa - GBTP Resources 1]*."* [PSF-12]

These extracts demonstrate that multiple national cultures were present in the business units and in the GBTP and that these national cultures influenced the project culture.

Organisational Culture: The organizational culture of the resource company was strongly established which demanded of employees and external partners working for the organization adherence to its cultural values as well as it was driven by a strong leadership being supporting of the GBTP.

An interviewee stated the resources company:

> *"Is certainly a well established company, it has been around for years, it is well recognized within the industry as well as outside of the industry."* [GM-12]

He continued:

> *"Effectively the same strategy for close to ten years now* [.. which] *certainly has a profound impact on the way I as a manager work within this company.* [.. and] *all of its employees."* [GM-12]

The following example provided by a project manager of the resources company highlights the business code of conduct and strategy which both instantiate and revitalise the organisations culture.

> *"We put a lot of focus on probably two things on a continuous basis. First of all it is our business code of conduct that gets renewed every year, that employee is expected to sign up to and more importantly needs to demonstrate that he or she lives those core values. They are essentially a part of our yearly appraisal system where people get recognized or rewarded for applying those core values. The second thing which in part of culture which is your company strategy, from top management all the way down* [..] *it certainly has a profound impact on the way I as a manager work within this company. But I think generally if I look across also how it impacts all of its employees."* [GM-12]

A salient aspect to the organisational culture was the amount of management support, to the GBTP, which was perceived as key enabler as stressed in following statements made by two interviewees.

> *"From what I have seen in all projects, it was the strongest sponsorship and also from a governance point of view you know, their executive committee, it was basically you know their steering committee. It was very strong sponsorship, the relationship was very strongly driven by the CEO and they were actively driven by him."* [PSF-14]

> *"The biggest enabler is actually under the CEO's passionate drive* [..] *but for success you need to get the GM's wanting to do this."* [GM-11]

In retrospect, the resources company's GBTP is a prime example of a successful transformation, as reported by both internal employees of the hosting organisation and the involved consultants. An executive director of a professional service firm involved stated.

> *"I must say that* [Company - GBTP Resources 1] *was probably the best business driven business initiative of all the projects I have ever been involved."* [PSF-14]

Industry Culture: The resource sector's industry culture instantiated in this GBPT's project culture became particularly evident as the GBTP engaged with the wider organisation. The resources sector being in general divided into an operational 'blue collar' and an office 'white collar' environment. An interviewee stressed the importance of this characteristic with an example of how to gain as buy-in for process change form a 'white collar' perspective.

> *"Industry has a huge impact so… um, so being in the resource sector means it is crediting people that are part of the change program are blue collar workers and the way you approach that is distinctly different to approaching a white collar work force. You know blue-collar workforce, they are all over the place, it is very difficult to contain them, to talk to them etcetera so you have got some logistical challenges. Firstly, secondly they are less interested in change. If you want to change something for them, you have really got to show what's in it for them. You cannot talk about why it is good for the company, just does not mean anything to them; you will not get them interested. Whereas a professional body, all of that is a lot easier. What is probably tough on the professional body is they probably ask a lot more questions which I would say overall is a good thing albeit it makes the initial engagement more difficult."* [GM-11]

Thus it is seen that the Resource Sector Industry culture of strong divide based on employment category figured prominently in this GBTP.

Professional Service Firm Culture: A professional service firm culture was instantiated in the project culture of GBTP Resources 1. An interviewee from the resources company working on that GBTP reported that the professional service firm culture shaped the project culture.

On point he thereby highlighted particularly given their involvement,

> *"because the majority of people on the project are* [Professional Service Firm 'name'] *people"* [GM-11]

He added that given strongly established organisational culture of 'company' [GBTP Resources 1] there were initial problems of the professional service firms consultants to adapt to their clients strongly established organizational culture despite they have been trained therefore.

> *"*[Professional Service Firm 'name'] *people when they come into a client's business, they have been trained to be flexible and adapt to that culture - In fact I know they have been trained on that so they tend to fit in with the environment."* [GM-11]

The resources company made efforts to actively managed the professional service firm's consultants deployed in [GBTP Resources 1]. These were recruited against the core values of the GBTP and their performance assessed in the same manner as that of internal employees. In consequence there was ultimately only one project team with one project culture no matter if the people were working for the hosting organisation or the professional service firm.

A consultant working on that GBTP on the other hand stated how they, the consultants were perceived by the resources company's employees given their approach.

> *"She* [GBTP Resources 1] *was saying to one of our* [Professional Service Firm 'name'] *guys that she has never met as many A-type driver personalities that she has to work with and I think she sometimes finds it a bit scary in a way because she is surrounded by so many people that do not want to talk, you know, do not spend a lot of time doing the nice talkie but softly stuff and get the work the done."* [PSF-14]

Overall the professional service firm culture shaped the project culture as an interview stated though qualifying that the resources companies organizational culture was dominating.

> *"The* [PSF 'name'] *culture shaped the project culture to a degree.* [..] *But what I would say is that the* [company - GBTP Resources 1] *culture is definitely, definitely the more dominating one"* [GM-11]

The same interviewee in retrospect reflected:

> *"When you bring in a large project team that is largely outsourced from outside of the organisation, and you are doing that rapidly, that in our case it is using* [Professional Service Firm 'name'] *they did really struggle to fit into the* [Company – GBTP Resources 1] *culture. So one of the things that we were doing and we should have done better initially is inducting them into the* [Company – GBTP Resources 1] *culture. Not just taking for granted that they would understand and be able to work with it but actually um, you know, going through the induction process, making sure that they understand it so they can work effectively with the organisation that do operate in a particular way."* [GM-11]

The facet 'Delivery and Integration' of vignette GBTP Resources Company presented in Chapter 7, illustrates further how the professional service firm culture adapted to the culture of the resources company.

'Theme' Culture: A 'safety culture' was reported to be instantiated as an interviewee particularly highlighted that the GBTP was to improve safety process.

> *"Safety is very important to* [Company - GBTP Resources 1]*, if you are trying to drive change in a safety process, all you have to do is demonstrate why that change will drive and improve a safety performance and no one will argue with it, they will just do it."* [GM-11]

Thus we see that the safety theme culture was strong in this GBTP.

6.6 Reflections on the Construct of Culture in GBTPs

The theoretical model of the construct of culture presented in this chapter describes culture by the three elements of culture types, cultural differences and cultural diversity. Also, it provides an expanded view of culture beyond the national and organisational level of culture. Both are researched extensively though often independent from each other, and in a multinational organization, the organisational culture spans across boundaries of national culture (Eberlein, 2008). This is detailed in a typology of culture types, which explains the project culture of a GBTP by the discovered culture types of industry culture, professional service firm culture and 'theme' culture next to the established national and organizational culture.

The remainder of this section reflects on each of the above.

Construct of Culture: The theoretical model of the construct of culture is to offer a framework that allows decomposition, explanation and consequently understanding of the various different constructs of culture present in GBTPs. It is to bypass the intricacy, intangibility and subtlety of culture (Boyacigiller, Kleinberg, Phillips, & Sackmann, 2004), and accommodates a dynamic view of culture (Hinds, et al., 2011) while allowing for a broader multilevel thinking beyond the traditional culture types of national and organisational culture. It is understood as fluid, in the means of *"something that is interpreted and re-interpreted, and constantly produced and reproduced in social relations"* (Myers & Tan, 2002, p. 28) and influenced by the cultural assumptions present. The construct of culture of a GBTP is described by its project culture, which implies the instantiation of multiple culture types.

Typology of Culture Types: The typology of culture types frames the discovered culture types instantiated in the project culture of a GBTP as well as allows it to identify, discern, delineate and describe them. In respect to the discovered culture types it is to be remarked that this study was set to explore and identify culture types instantiated in the project culture of a GBTP and not to exhaustively elaborate on these by detailing their inter-relationships. To be noted is the discovery of an industry culture, professional service firm culture and 'theme' culture along with the established national and organisational culture. All culture types discovered in this study rely on the lived experiences senior management practitioner shared during the interview.

Cultural Differences: Culture and more precisely culture types, is intangible and context dependent, are its existence is most notably recognised based upon their differences. In other words, cultural differences allow identification of the culture types instantiated in the project culture of a GBTP. Moreover the presence of cultural differences testifies that culture in GBTPs is a heterogeneous and diverse construct that constitutes of multiple culture types, rather than one singular culture.

Cultural Diversity: The concurrent aggregation of multiple culture types is termed cultural diversity. Data suggests that GPTPs are by nature culturally diverse independent of whether they are international, country bound, or local. The derived

typology thus distinguishes between GBTPs, which are truly global, global by nation, and global by involvement. This further supports the generalisability of this study's findings beyond GPTPs.

Practice: The theoretical model of the construct of culture as elaborated in this chapter, allows senior management practitioners to better assess and understand the GBTP's construct of culture in which they are engaged, which is unique to the GBTP. This knowledge allows for better planning, initiation and execution of GPTPs. The vignettes presented illustrate the theoretical model derived and provide further insights expressed in the language of senior management practitioners.

In summary, the reported lived experience of the interviewees gained in a variety of cultural and project settings shows that it matters to be aware of and to understand the elements and composition of a GPTPs construct of culture.

6.7 Synopsis Construct of Culture in GBTPs

This chapter described the construct of culture in GBTPs and its elements. It presented an empirically grounded theoretical model providing insights into the construct of culture in GPTPs and its elements, namely: culture types, cultural differences and cultural diversity. The culture types discovered in this study were elaborated in a typology of culture types were: an industry culture, professional services firm culture and 'theme' culture, in addition to the well-known national and organisational culture, Each of these culture types influences the overall project culture, and their presence and strength of influence is variable and not the same across the reported GBTP.

The pinnacle of the theoretical model of culture types and typology of culture types is that these accommodate the dynamic nature of culture as well as see culture from a holistic multilevel perspective, which is different to the majority of current research. Also, the discovered theory has a strong and unique empirical grounding.

The next Chapter 7 is titled '

Managing Culture in Global Business Transformation Projects'. It introduces and describes the processual model of the process for managing culture.

Chapter 7: Managing Culture in Global Business Transformation Projects

> *It's like the practice of medicine in the Middle Ages. A leech under the armpit, and one to the groin, with no understanding of bacteria, viruses or how the body worked, there were lots of prescriptions* [..] *But cures were largely the product of random chance. A parallel holds today. Lots of remedies but few examples of authentic transformation. Organizations churn through one technique after another and at best get incremental improvement on top of business as usual. At worst, these efforts waste resources and evoke cynicism and resignation.*
>
> -- Richard Pascale, author of 'Managing on the Edge' (in Crainer, 1996)

This chapter presents the empirically grounded processual model that describes the process for managing culture in GBTP and is a core contribution of this study. This model applies a process perspective that revolves around the integration of the categories of recognition, understanding, and management, as well as enablement in a basic social process. It is to answer the 'abstract wonderment' of:

- How to deal with culture in GBTPs?

In doing so, this chapter first introduces the processual model of the process for managing culture. It then details its interrelated stages and their relationships as they were discovered in the data generated in dedicated sections. The stages are:

- *Recognition,* to identify and apprehend the culture types instantiated in a GBTP, the cultural differences between those as well as contextual variables present.
- *Understanding,* to analyse and comprehend the construct of culture and contextual variables present in a GBTP as well as the implications of both.
- *Management,* to respond to the identified needs and issues by planning and executing an appropriate strategy to deal with culture.
- *Enablement,* composed by three enabling functions management, support, communication and training.

Thereafter vignettes illustrate the process for managing culture. This chapter then concludes with a reflection and summary.

This chapter then illustrates the empirical grounding of the processual model of the process for managing culture with five vignettes and concludes with a reflection on the processual model of the process for managing culture.

7.1 Process for Managing Culture in Global Business Transformation Projects

The process for managing culture in GBTPs is the sequential integration of the distinct, yet interdependent categories of recognition, understanding and management as well as enablement in a processual[32] model. This model is built upon and informed by the theoretical model of the construct of culture and the contextual variables to GBTPs. The processual model developed from the study provides an integrated formulation of the key categories and concepts as well as their relationships found to be salient in the data generated. Figure 7-1 depicts this processual model.

[32] The word 'processual', which is generally related to methodological studies of processes in social science, is used in preference to 'process' because it implies the evolving nature and motion of the basic social process of dealing with culture.

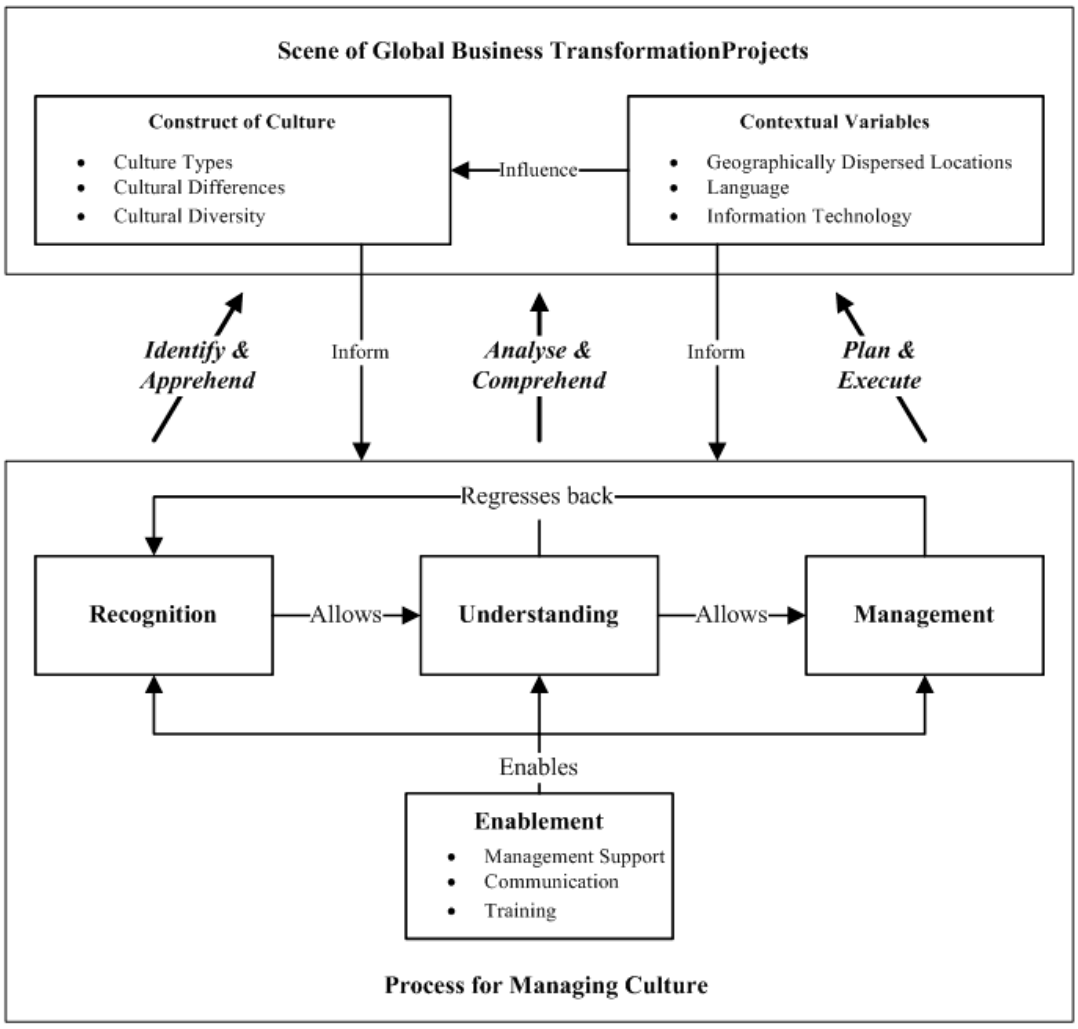

Figure 7-1: Processual Model of the Process for Managing Culture

The processual model as elaborated above allows describing any example senior management practitioners reported[33] on when dealing with culture in GBTPs. It applies at various levels, an activity level i.e. interacting with project members in the same manner as on a managerial level i.e. site engagement plan of an GBTP. In other words, processual model of the process for managing culture can explain the dealing with culture in any GBTP reported on. This is in line with the requirements of grounded theory being *"abstract of time, place and people"* (Glaser & Holton, 2004, p. 9). An account of examples is given in section 7.2 Vignettes in this chapter, but the power of these examples to illustrate is limited; the processual model of the

[33] A detailed account of this studies empirical grounding is provided in Chapter 5, section 5.4 Empirical Grounding

process for managing culture is rather a guide than a cookbook with the construct of culture [Chapter 6] being unique to a GBTP.

The processual mechanism of this model appears to be sequential but, at the same time, it is an iterative process to deal with and accommodate culture in GBTPs, if necessary, the process regresses back to an earlier stage. Its progression is determined by the specific GBTP's unique construct of culture and the contextual variables present, both form the GBTPs scene and inform the process for managing culture. The stages of the processual model are:

Recognition: The first stage recognition involves identifying and apprehending the GPTPs scene, specifically the apparent culture types. To do so, recognition must address the questions: What culture types are present in the GBTP? and How are these culture types manifested in the GBTP? The first question addresses the identification requirement and the second question addresses the apprehension requirement, which is to recognize the meaning and being aware of the culture types.

Understanding: The next stage understanding involves analysing and comprehending the culture types instantiated in the GBTPs project culture, and determining the cultural differences relevant to the GBTP, as well as their implications. Also, it is important to understand the environment in which the GBTP is situated in and identify the contextual variables influencing the GBTP's construct of culture. Questions used to address this understanding include: Why are these culture types present? How do these culture types interact? and What behaviours effecting the task accomplishment are present?

Management: The third stage management involves planning for and executing an appropriate strategy for dealing with culture in GBTPs. One strategy therefore is adaption, which is elaborated in greater detail later in this chapter.

Enablement: All stages of the processual model are underpinned by the elements of enablement, which are management support, communication and training. These are found to enable the progression of the process for managing culture, enacting the recognition, understanding, and management of culture.

The following sub-sections address each of the elements of the processual model. Examples reported by interviewees illustrating these elements are presented in the subsequent section, vignettes.

7.1.1 Recognition

Recognition, the first stage of the process for managing culture involves the gathering of information about the GBTP and the environment in which it is situated, resulting in the identification and apprehension of important aspects present in GBTPs with respect to culture. Recognition is reached when involved parties are conscious of the culture types and contextual variables present in the GBTP, and are able to distinguish them from another. Recognition is the precondition for the next stage: understanding.

In the stage of recognition, one first examines the environment in which the GBTP is situated, and seek to detect instantiated culture types within the GBTPs project culture. This detection occurs through the identification of cultural differences and influencing contextual variables.

The theoretical model of the construct of culture detailed in the previous Chapter 6 [Figure 6-1] provides a framework or inventory of culture types possibly present in a GBTP. Enquiring about the cultural background of people and countries involved reveals national cultures, cultures operant in the GBTP. Enquiring about the organisational setting of the GBTP reveals further national cultures as well as potential organisational, and industry culture, which may be present. Enquiring about the presence of external parties in the GBTP will reveal the presence of professional service firms involved in the GBTP and surface additional national cultures, and the possible role of professional service firm culture in shaping the project culture for the GBTP. Further, enquiry with key organisational personnel may reveal as well as dominant and overarching ‘themes’ apparent which may lead to the introduction of a ‘theme’ culture as a component of the project culture. These enquiries help identifying the variety and nature of culture types present in the GBTP. However, it is to be noted that, not all culture types presented in the previous chapter are necessarily instantiated in a GBTP and their extent of manifestation may differ to that in other GBTP.

Cultural differences are often manifested in social and team processes and recognised by asking: How are decisions made? How do people interact? How are team dynamics evolving? What differences in actions are observed?

Next to the cultural aspects, attention is also to be paid to the contextual variables to GBTPs influencing the GBTP's construct of culture.

The stage of recognition involves activities including observations, note taking, enquiring - asking what is happing, but also the activities to filter and classify the gathered information. It results in an inventory of identified culture types, cultural differences, contextual variables, and elements of enablement present. This stage of recognition can take place throughout the endeavour of a GBTP as the processual model also allows regressing back from the stages of understanding as well as management if new aspects emerge, or if there has been an oversight.

Recognition however is at risk of making assumptions based on stereotypes, a *"widely shared and simplified evaluative image of a social group and its members"* (Vaughan & Hogg, 1995, p. 188). Stereotypical assertions are acquired by a combination of professional and private experience as well as education and cultural background. One consequence of such stereotyping occurs when the beliefs of people's social attributes create behavioural constraints and lead to reality conforming to the stereotype (Snyder, 1984). Stereotyping leads to the risks that the consequent interaction is upon the stereotypical assumptions rather than the actual character, and even if the stereotypes are correct, an individual or group does not necessarily respond in accordance to the stereotypes (Miller, et al., 2000). In turn, stereotypical assertions limit conversations as well as the decision making process (Snyder, 1984).

In the following extract is illustrated how an interviewee attempts to predict the conduct of conversations based on his previous experience and interaction with individuals of the same culture, however this is an example of stereotyping.

> *"Almost every nationality of person that I have met, if I have subsequently met another national from that country they would have typically reinforced the position of how it was that I saw those people* [..] *To the extent that I can go into a multi-stakeholder engagement and just by looking at the names of the people around the room and reading their backgrounds, you know very briefly, I could probably work out how that conversation is going to go."* [GM-13]

Similarly interviewees tend to fall back to stereotypical assertions in the attempt to explain or predict cultural differences in such as the manner of communication.

> *"Americans seem to behave in a particular way, Europeans as a group I would not be able to label them but I could probably tell you the difference between the Swedish, the Norwegians, the Danes* [Danish]*, the Brits* [British]*, the Belgians they all have their own little eccentricities and characteristics. In terms of working with Europeans is too disparate, you know if I were working with a German it would be different from working with a French or an Italian.* [..] *if I was working with Asians I would be more cognizant of what was not said. So in the course of a discussion, again I have to qualify it, unless it for example were an Indian from India or a Filipino, in a way you are much more vocal but if you are a mainland Chinese, if you are Malaysian, if you are let's say Thai it would be almost impossible. You have to meet them for dinner before they said anything."* [GM-13]

Hence, *"it is to wise to avoid stereotyping"* (Miller, et al., 2000, p. 21) since there is tremendous difference between recognising culture and acknowledging culture as well as their differences and falling back on stereotypes. However, the line between reality and stereotyping is often fine and it thus requires the flair of an experienced and unbiased senior management practitioner to recognise the cultures in place.

Further illustrations of the recognition stage as part of the process for managing culture are given in the vignettes provided in a later section of this chapter. These provide first-hand insights from interviewees on how culture types, cultural differences, and also behavioural differences, customs or language in respect to culture were recognised.

In summary, the recognition of culture types results in awareness and apprehension of the culture types instantiated in the GBTP's project culture, differences between those as well as the contextual variables present. In the following an interviewee stressed the need to recognise culture types and cultural differences.

> *"If you do not know the different cultures that could be either national or corporate culture then there is the risk that you run into some issues which you did not even perceive or which you did not expect and which also you might not recognize because you are not sensitive or aware of potential issues."* [PSF-10]

He further added.

> *"You have to be fully aware of all these potential culture issues* [..] *there are like really significant things that have to be done different in terms of whether you have that culture or that culture."* [PSF-10]

Moreover, literature highlights that recognising culture is also to leverage cultural diversity and increase performance (Olsen & Martins, 2012), achieving organisational objectives (Cox, 1993; Ely & Thomas, 2001) and allowing management across cultures (Eberlein, 2008). At the same time, there is a need to be aware that not all underlying properties of diversity are observable, as ethnic differences might be associated with underlying properties such as socioeconomic status, education and values (Milliken & Martins, 1996).

In short, the recognition of cultural types and cultural differences is of instrumental value and allows for the next stage of understanding, which is elaborated on in the following sections.

7.1.2 Understanding

Understanding is the second stage of the process for managing culture. It involves analysing and comprehending the implications of the culture types present, their cultural differences and recognised contextual variables as well as the identified needs and issues. Understanding leads to comprehension of the GBTP's construct of culture, its implications in the given context, and also the ability to evaluate these against existing knowledge and project objectives. This stage of understanding builds on the awareness and apprehension of the recognition stage and is to prepare for the third stage of the management of culture.

More precisely, the understanding stage involves the acquisition of more information about all recognised aspects, and to then further assess, classify and make sense of these and their implications to the GBTP. Activities to aid understanding include the acquisition of more information through observation, questioning, workshops, on-going communication with all parties involved in the GBTP, and training. Just as in the recognition stage, the elements of enablement, management support, communication and training, as well as the theoretical model

of the construct of culture and contextual variables identified allow for the understanding of culture in GBTPs.

Understanding results in the comprehension of the GBTP's construct of culture the contextual variables influencing this, as well as the implications of both. This in turn allows the formulation of needs and actions that are to be managed in the next stage, the management stage. The understanding though is to be twofold, and implies both the understanding of a 'something' but also being understood by the parties involved in a GBTP. In the words of a senior management practitioner, understanding is about:

> *"First seek to understand and then be understood. So go out there and find out what their current thinking is, what their perceptions are, why are they doing it, what their drivers are, are they hostages, have they been told they have to do it because it is some initiative, so you need to understand where they are coming from, what are the key drivers or leaders driving them to do it would be the first target."* [PSF-09]

In instances where common understanding is not achieved, or a lack of understanding is identified or emerges throughout the GBTP, the processual model allows to regress back to the stage of recognition. A constraint to gain understanding is the complexity inherent to GBTPs as well as the number of parties involved. Literature reports on issues to occur with the increasing involvement of external parties such as professional service firms, which in turn raise the need for coordination (Berggren, Soderlund, & Anderson, 2001). The facet 'Delivery and Integration' of the vignette 'GBTP Resources Company' [GBTP Resources 1] is an illustration of such. Baba et al. (2004) illustrates the challenges associated with gaining a common understanding in an example of a longitudinal study of a marketing strategy across the globe involving seven countries. The section with the vignettes in this chapter further illustrates the understanding stage in the process of managing culture through examples. This understanding helps deal with and thus manage culture, or as one interviewee reported:

> *"Understanding that* [culture] *is really, really helpful at getting through the work."* [PSF-13]

It is not the cultural differences that determine how decisions are made but the understanding of these differences. Literature ascribes this understanding as fundamental to manage a diverse project team (Miller, et al., 2000; Ang, et al., 2007). Understanding culture is important (Leidner, 2010). It is essential in projects such as

GBTPs that senior management practitioners understand the cultures present (Anantatmula & Thomas, 2010) as well as the cultural differences these lead to (Myers & Tan, 2002) in order to manage these. This includes the project team members' personalities, group identifications and affiliations (Miller, et al., 2000) as well as project-specific interdependencies and its business environment (Anantatmula & Thomas, 2010). In respect to cultural differences, it is important to value the differences but also to understand the common elements (Miller, et al., 2000), along with the project requirements (Berggren, et al., 2001). For instance, research in the space of offshore software development (Carmel & Agarwal, 2002) (Kaiser & Hawk, 2004) (Rai, Maruping, & Venkatesh, 2009) highlights the increasing importance of understanding how cultural values differ in culturally diverse teams.

Further, the recognition and understanding of culture is conjectured to lead to a state of cultural knowledge, and knowledgeability of culture. In the case of an GBTP, knowing the characteristics and specifics of the culture types present as well as contextual variables, which inform the process for managing culture, action.

Overall, both the recognition stage and the understanding stage are required to be completed in order to move into the next stage, the management stage.

7.1.3 Management

Management, the third and final stage of the process for managing culture, deals with culture. More precisely it deals with the elements of the construct of culture: culture types, cultural differences and cultural diversity as well as culture related issues and the contextual variables identified. It is an interactive and continual process often throughout all phases of a GBTP lifecycle, which builds up on the stages of recognition and understanding. The management of culture is about planning the course of action followed by its execution.

The actual management strategies and their associated activities are dependent on the GBTP's construct of culture, the environment it is situated in, as well as its objectives. One such strategy for the management of culture in GBTPs found in data analysed is adaption. This study, rather than providing an exhaustive and complete overview of strategies of how culture can be dealt with in an enterprise, provides

insights in how culture can be dealt with in GBTPs by the strategy of adaption elaborated on next.

Adaption: The strategy of managing culture by adaption as discovered in the data is understood as the process, result or consequence of organising a 'something' so that it has the 'right' relationship, balance to another 'something' present. The 'something' in GBTPs refers to culture types, cultural differences or environmental characteristics. In practice, adaption aims to provide a harmonised environment that allows people to operate across cultures, independent of the expressed cultural diversity. The precondition for adaption is therefore awareness and understanding of cultural differences as well as awareness and understanding of contextual variables influencing the GBTP's construct of culture. This allows one to plan and execute activities in accordance to these factors, and amends the approach in order to meet the needs of the GBTP and its involved locations.

How understanding the GBTP's construct of culture allowed adaptation of the approach according to the different national cultures of involved locations is illustrated by an executive director of a professional service firm comparing the United States with Japan.

> *"Here in the US, the machinery company* [GBTP Engineering 2] *we had a prototype based approach: Get them up and running so you have all the time something happening and some short term results and then move step by step the design and the implementation of that prototype. In Japan, we took more time to do the design the process and implement it once in a way that really works* [..] *you will surely have to adjust, mainly your change management activities which means your information, communication, training activities and you may change the level of detail you work. In Japan, they need to know everything to the last point so that they understand everything and do it very thought through. Again the US, you are training more on the higher level that they know the overall direction."* [PSF-15]

Another example by an interviewee showed how understanding allowed to subsequently adapting to the needs of people engaged in a GBTP, whether these were cultural differences or personal needs.

> *"What I see at my client here in South Africa, South Africa as you correctly mentioned is one of the most diversified countries of the world in terms of ethnicities and culture. At the C-level of this client you have South African of Indian origin who is Muslim, you have a totally black person, then you have Afrikaans and you have Anglo-Saxon and the new CEO is German -*

> *A lot of different cultures, a lot of different religions, a lot of different backgrounds. This particular organization respects all of these cultures. The chief commercial officer is a Muslim and regularly on Friday he packs up his things and goes to Mosque for prayers. The German CEO's family is living in Zurich while he is managing this company here* [South Africa]. *Everybody accepts that that guy will be on the plane pretty much every weekend. The black people are much more, let's say less organized and more creative, everybody embraces their creativity. This is an extreme example of how different cultures are embraced in an organization."* [PSF-12]

In short, the strategy of adaption requires flexibility and the need to compromise on cultural differences present.

The vignettes provided in the following section illustrate various instances of the strategy of adaption in different GBTP reported on by senior management practitioners. This is with the exception of the vignette 'Ignorance of Culture' which illustrates a contrasting strategy reported on wherein the dominant national culture of the GBTP was intentionally neglected.

The strategy of adaption is to organise a 'something' so that it has the 'right' relationship and will result in 'fit'. 'Cultural fit' is an important concept in research (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006) and is reported to facilitate communication and knowledge transfer (Tey & Idris, 2012). Fit is understood as the level of congruence between the values. A Close fit lead to positive perceptions, while the opposite applies for a lack of fit (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006).

In the following a director of an automotive company highlights how he ensured a culture fit in the means of balance of the cultures present when staffing his engineering team.

> *"You had to change project teams accordingly, see that you have a sufficient mix of all the cultures in there so that nobody felt not involved."* [GM-10]

However, culture fit is not only the fit between cultures; also it is the fit between cultures and subgroups or methodologies, procedures. Dube and Robey (1999) conclude their study on organisational practices on software development that the success of such projects depends on the fit of the various subgroups' values embedded in the software development innovation. In an earlier study, Dube (1998) demonstrates a good fit among values of the software development process and the

organization that leads to a more successful implementation. Ngwenyama and Nielsen (2003) in their study found that cultural assumptions are part of process methodologies and could conflict with the cultural assumptions of the project team and thus leading to difficulties in the implementation process. Also, cultural fit was identified as a predictor for implementation success as Robey and Rodrigues-Diaz (1989) show in their study comparing the US headquarters with two subsidiaries in Panama and Chile. Lehmann (2004) found that systems developed based on the local culture might not be suitable for transfer to other regions. His study shows that an organisation that developed a system in the United States was not immediately able to transfer it to its other operating regions. Furthermore, technology is more likely adopted if the groups value 'fit' with the values embedded in the technology or associated with its development (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006).

In the perspective of this study's findings, dealing with culture by applying the strategy of adaption is to facilitate the progression towards culture fit of the GBTP. The facet 'Delivery and Integration' of vignette 'GBTP Resources Company' [GBTP Resources 1] is one example, which illustrates that.

Others strategies to deal with culture in GBTPs discovered include building a culture or changing a culture, both are also heavily reported in literature. It is to be noted that not all GBTPs seek to build or change culture, but some do.

Building: Interviewees suggested the importance of building a project culture, as the following excerpt illustrates.

> *"It is very worth to invest a lot in your internal cultures and define your values very clearly to manage expectations of your staff."* [GM-06]

Building a culture was reported to apply particularly to the early stage of the GBTP including to actively take culture into account.

> *"I think it is very important to take culture into at the beginning of the project, at the planning of the project.* [..] *It is absolutely critical to take into consideration different cultural aspects at the beginning of the project and incorporate them into the plan."* [PSF-17]

Literature provides processes for building a culture (Schouten & McAlexander, 1995) or the evolution of a culture (Irwin, 1973) that can be adapted.

Changing: Changing a culture can be an explicit objective or part of a GBTP. One interviewee pointed out that GBTPs cannot avoid change as they ultimately change the organizations processes or structure and therefore behaviour and culture.

> *"Every project that we do ends up in changing an organization."* [PSF-14]

This applies particular to mergers and acquisitions as illustrated in the following.

> *"The message was very clear when* [Company - GBTP Consumer 9] *bought* [Company Acquired - GBTP Consumer 9] *which is to say that culture will change and will be our culture* [Company - GBTP Consumer 9]*."* [GM-08]

Another GBTP reported on resulted in changing the company's current operating model and thus culture.

> *"*[Company - GBTP Resources 1] *has what we call an* [Operating model]*, where each asset has been allowed to do its own thing as long as it makes good profit* [..] *that is changing rapidly and* [GBTP Resources 1] *completely goes against that.* [GBTP Resources 1] *forces things to be done in a particular way because they are not used to that happening to them. In fact it* [GBTP Resources 1] *has been the opposite."* [GM-11]

In literature, numerous frameworks detail the process of changing a culture. These include: changing a corporate culture (Silverzweig & Allen, 1976; Bennett, et al., 1994), a framework for change management (Kotter, 1996), frameworks for incremental and radical organisational change as a result of information systems implementation (Orlikowski, 1993), situated change (Orlikowski, 1996), and the improvisational model for organisational change that distinguishes the type of change in anticipated, emergent or opportunity based change (Orlikowski & Hofman, 1997). It is reminded that the scope of this study was die identify and detail how to manage culture in GBTPs but not to examine the extent or type of change in respect to GBTPs.

Overall, the stage of management points out how culture can be managed in GBTPs. Key is to apply generic strategies to manage the project culture of a specific GBTP. The construct of culture, which informs the process for managing culture, has shown that the project culture is an amalgamation of the different culture types instantiated in a GBTP. The focal culture for management is thus the project culture - not the culture of the organization. Strategies for managing culture include adapting,

building a culture and changing culture. Particular attention is paid to the strategy of adaption when dealing with culture in GBTPs, which was discovered being salient in the examples interviewees reported on. Regardless the frameworks on building or changing a culture may be applied to deal with culture in GBTPs, generate their desired project culture.

The following sub-sections introduce the identified strategies of enablement.

7.1.4 Enablement

The elements of enablement to the processual model discovered in this study compromise management support, communication and training. From a processual perspective they are found to enable the progression of the process for managing culture while enacting the stages of recognition, understanding and management.

7.1.4.1 Management Support

Management support from the perspective of the interviewees is instantiated and personalised by the leadership of an individual and its associated power in the GBTP. Management support is realised by enabling GBTPs through decision-making, resources allocation and problem solving.

The element of management support was reported to be fundamental on two levels, the support of top-management as well as middle management. Enabling characteristics suggested by the data were consistency and endurance of the management support.

Top-management: Top-management support was identified by reports of initial and ongoing sponsorship as well as the creation and maintenance of an aligned support network of leaders, rather than individuals throughout the organisation. An executive director of a professional service firm illustrated the importance of such a network of leaders in GBTPs as follows.

> *"On a global project is the importance of sponsorship* [..] *If you work on a global project, you need to create a network of leaders that are all consistently repeating the principles, the guidelines and the values that are driving and guiding a global project."* [PSF-14]

Middle Management: The support of the middle management was reported to be of equal importance to engage with the broader organisation and to ensure the involvement of the effected parties of the GBTP in order to achieve acceptance to the GPTPs objectives. Also, it is the middle management team that drives the GBTP and hence has to implement any resulting changes on an operational level. In the following extract, the importance of the understanding and buy-in of the middle-level management is emphasised by an interviewee in the following quote.

> *"The old adage, middle management can kill any program was a definite in there* [GBTP] *because if they are not aware of it or do not understand it, they do not care if it is successful or not because it is not important to them. And it can also be a threat to them because people are talking about things that they are not au fait with* [..] *Getting all the CEO's together, getting all the Managing Director's together is good but unless you have got for instance, your supervisor on board and if he does not know what you are working on then he is not going to be supportive of it* [..] *they* [middle management] *are the ones that drive the culture of that area of work or that area of improvement."* [PSF-09]

This is in line with Cox (Cox, 1991) who emphasises on the particular importance of the middle management at lower organisational levels(Cox & Blake, 1991).

Consistency: One enabling characteristic of management support discovered is consistency, which is manifested as a strong, supportive, and aligned leadership, which is able to communicate the 'message' throughout the GBTP, as illustrated in the following example where it is clearly enabling the process for managing culture. An interviewee working for a professional service firm said:

> *"If the organization has very strong leadership in the sense that people at the top, they have clearly formulated the direction, they were able to communicate this direction to the rest of the organization. Plus they have a very clear road map how to reach the ultimate goal set by the direction. I think the organizations that have this kind of leadership are much more successful than the organizations where people below the top, top management have absolutely no clue where the organization is going, what is the ultimate objective and how are we going to get there."* [PSF-12]

Endurance: Data further suggested that endurance is another characteristic of management support manifested in the commitment by both top and middle management over an extended period of time is essential, often beyond the time boundaries of the GBTP. A director of a major automobile-manufacturing firm illustrated the importance of commitment to operations abroad by comparing the company he is working for with other multinationals.

> *"There are many multinational companies who have embraced the intercultural aspects and they are really international companies. That goes for companies like* [..] *that have dealt in international environments for a long time and are really settling down in the countries for production. Our company in the past never really embraced this intercultural aspect. We always went to the country out of sort of tax or customs aspect need, if you cannot import the car there then let's set up minimal production in the country but let's bring all the parts from* [company's base country] *and let's get it done on the lower scale. But if you want to be really successful you need to make a decision for the country, go there, produce there, localize parts, be there with your heart and soul."* [GM-10]

He further compared the company he is working for with Toyota.

> *"That's Toyota's principal when they go to a country, they go there do not haggle around the money for six years and whether or not we should produce there. If they want to produce in the country they go in at full speed and localize including managers, personnel and so on and so forth. And we normally need, spend about ten years thinking about it then question for another ten years and by the time the train has passed unfortunately."* [GM-10]

Similarly, Nohria et al. (2003) identified the need for passionate and committed management.

In summary, receiving overall management support, right from the executive board down to the line managers in the areas affected by the GBTP, is a key element in enabling the process for managing culture. Enabling characteristics of the management support suggested by the data were consistency and endurance throughout the management levels.

7.1.4.2 Communication

Communication is *"the process by which people share information, meanings and feelings through the exchange of verbal and non verbal messages"* (Klopf & McCroskey, 2000, p. 43) although it is to be noted that *"communication does not necessarily mean understanding"* (Moran, et al., 2007, p. 47).

Communication was discovered as the key enabler to GBTPs' means of interaction to either inform or enquire, and this mode of communication can either rich or lean. Rich communication modes are face-to-face communication and video conferencing that allow for rapid feedback (Ngwenyama & Lee, 1997), in contrast to lean communications modes such as e-mail. In cases where face-to-face communication is not possible given geographical dispersed locations sharing of information requires careful scheduling (Evaristo & van Fenema, 1999) of such as video conferencing. Effective communication though is suggested to combining different modes of communication (Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000). Similar was highlighted by an interviewee, who used multiple modes of communication in ensuring the information came across.

> *"What we did and what I still do in my projects I create a communication grid where I say* [..] *what are the different media that can be used. Email, face-to-face meeting, recorded video, etcetera. I tried to use multiple media to deliver the same message in different ways to make sure that people get a clear message."* [PSF-11]

Evaristo and Fenema (1999) suggest at least monthly face-to-face meetings of managers in projects with geographical dispersed locations. They further report that information and communication technologies enable communication in organisations, particularly those in a distributed mode.

Inform: Independent of the mode of communication, its consistency and clarity was reported to be of utmost importance in ensuring that the message reaches out to all the parties allowing involved for the sake of transparency of the GBTPs' intentions and objectives. An interviewee emphasised this in the excerpt below:

> *"You need to make sure that the wider organization that is going to be effected gets to know about it and gets to accept and embrace that this initiative is coming ahead"* [GM-12]

Another said that it is important to:

> *"Make sure that you have representatives from all major stakeholders"* [PSF-10]

Nevertheless, this continuum of communication is not always present in GBTPs as a director of a professional service firm reported.

> *"Be at the team meeting for a day and then do not hear and see anything about the project for the next year"* [PSF-05]

While certain information might be filtered, the involved and affected parties need to be continuously informed and updated in order to avoid misinterpretations. The literature shows that a clear communication the objects and deliverables to all project members is essential, for otherwise decision making is at risk to become slow and inefficient (Miller, et al., 2000). This communication needs to include the provision of advice and feedback.

Enquire: A theme repeatedly highlighted in the interviews was that in order to gain an understanding of the GBPT construct of culture, it was important to ask questions to allow for an understanding of cultural differences and the organisational environment the GBPT is situated in.

> *"The first thing you know I would do and have done is to ask a few questions about the culture. And you know if things differ from one culture and kind of what drives one organization versus another. Things such as instances of management hierarchy, what functions get along well, which do not get along well? How do they view corporate? Those types of questions to better understand is there something that we ought to factor into our approach. So you know that is really what I do."* [GM-14]

This can proceed in an unsystematic sequence but also by applying formal frameworks such as 5-Why, an approach of problem solving. *"By repeating 'why' five times, the nature of the problem as well as its solutions becomes clear"* (Ohno, 1988, p. 123). In the context of the process for managing culture by asking 'why' five times is to delineate the culture types present as well as the differences between those. This enquiry is a substantial part of the stages recognition and understanding.

Communication needs to be twofold in order to enable a common understanding of the current situation, objectives and next steps, but also to allow engagement and exchange of information between involved parties. The

effectiveness of communication is thereby most likely to be influenced by the norms and values of organisational or national cultural characteristics present (Walsham, 2002). Despite the mode of communications or purpose, it is of utmost importance to communicate 'right' in accordance with the culture already in place. The literature highlights, that cultural differences on a national level affect the way people communicate (DeLone, et al., 2005), and by the speed or richness of communication (McDonough, et al., 1999). Attempts to explain these often refer to cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 2001) or the distinction between high and low context cultures (Hall, 1976). In a high-context culture for instance, it is important how a message is communicated, meaning that the information provided has more meaning than the words indicate. In other words, a yes does not necessarily mean a yes, whereas in contrast to a low-context culture, where communication is direct and unambiguous. The facet 'Communication Manner' of the vignette 'GBTP Resources Company' [GBTP Resources 1] elaborates on this in further detail, where an interviewee explains how she had to change her style of communication.

Overall, communication is an indispensable vehicle for the understanding of cultures and managing culturally diverse teams (Miller, et al., 2000). Also, communication is a key enabler to global work spread across geographically dispersed locations (Evaristo & van Fenema, 1999). It allows people to overcome cultural differences (Pauleen, 2005) and is invaluable when dealing with culture for *"if cultural differences cannot be discussed, they cannot be managed"* (Richardson, 2005, p. 27). Communication is a *"central element of any model of organizational transformation"* (Schein, 1993, p. 40).

At this stage it is to be noted that effective communication is closely related to language, which is discovered as contextual variable to GBTPs, Chapter 5 and requires careful attention to the language needs of the GBTPs members. Both communication and language are identified as primary challenges to international projects (Eberlein, 2008).

7.1.4.3 Training

"Training is the most prevalent starting point for managing diversity" (Cox & Blake, 1991, p. 53). Training is one of the elements discovered that enables the

process for managing culture, and is understood as the action of teaching an individual or a group a particular skill or type of behaviour, which prepares them for an activity or set of activities. The literature differentiates between two types of training: awareness training and skill training (Cox & Blake, 1991).

Awareness Training: In the context of this study, awareness training seeks to create an understanding of the cultural diversity through revealing cultural differences and the desired cultural practices. Examples of awareness training were reported as an introduction to the culture of the organisation hosting the GBTP, and cross-cultural training, but also explicit workshops seeking to embed desired values and behaviours in the GBTP. The focus of such awareness training is to recognise and respect differences present, rather than the suppression of differences (Olsen & Martins, 2012). Particularly when initiating GBTPs, awareness training was reported to enable the stages of recognition and understanding of the culture types instantiated and cultural differences (compare Krishna, Sahay, & Walsham, 2004)

Interviewees' highly valued the cultural workshops that allowed them to understand and acknowledge the cultural differences present in the GBTP they are working on. An executive director said.

> *"The things that was actually quite good at* [GBTP Resources 1] *was those cultural workshops that we did have* [..] *it did create the level of understanding and acknowledgement of the differences. I thought that was actually quite helpful it is probably a good idea to do on any global project that you have to just create that level of understanding."* [PSF-14]

A director of another professional service firm situated in Germany reported that the firm he is working for even arranged an internal cultural awareness training before the project commenced and consultants went to the client in Saudi Arabia.

> *"Cultural preparation, so for example for* [GBTP Chemicals 3] *we send our people to get cultural training, how to behave in [Saudi Arabia] because it is a very difficult environment."* [PSF-06]

Overall, interviewees reported that such cultural awareness training needed to be specific to a GBTP, identify and explain their business approach, and the cultural background of involved individuals and groups, and also countries, along with the do's & don'ts within the cultural context as well as the modes of communication. An ongoing on-the-job training program is suggested in the literature to reflect on ongoing experience and transfer knowledge with colleagues (Krishna, et al., 2004).

However, interviewees reported that such cultural awareness workshops were often once-off events rather than continuous activities as needed. The following interview excerpt illustrates this.

> *"At* [GBTP Consumer 8] *as part of our orientation, there was a presentation around that [culture] for all the third parties involved in the project* [..] *this is the culture, this is what you should expect, this is why you should not be intimidated. But that was a once off and I think that is almost the thing, the cultural awareness, checking your approach and your success and how you might need to adjust things according to that culture, is not something that happens on a continuous basis."* [PSF-14]

Skill Training: On the other hand skill training develops skills and competencies (Prahalad & Oosterveld, 1999) in regard to 'how' to respond to cultural differences (Cox & Blake, 1991). Skill training was reported to be more dependent on the GBTPs scope, and its objectives but also specific to tasks of individuals or groups as well as their skills and expertise. One key aspect highlighted by both data and literature is language training (Cox & Blake, 1991) in order to increase the proficiency in the project language.

Overall, training can enable the process for managing culture in the form of awareness or skill training, though in practice these are often combined (Cox & Blake, 1991). The training itself however is only one part, and the other more important part is its application and utilisation. As Hofstede said *"the nature of management skills is such that they are culturally specific: a management technique or philosophy that is appropriate in one national culture is not necessarily appropriate in another"* (1984, p. 81). In turn, training needs to be tailored to the demands of the GBTP as well as the people and countries involved. The literature further highlights that in practice, training often represents the first step of the change efforts an organisation needs to undergo (Cox & Blake, 1991). Although training as discovered in this study is to provide knowledge and skills to increase knowledge and facilitate communication.

The following section will present some vignettes in order to illustrate the processual model of the process for managing culture.

7.2 Vignettes: Process for Managing Culture in GBTPs

The vignettes presented in this section are to illustrate the empirical grounding of the derived processual model. They provide a meaningful illustration of the process for managing culture as reported on by interviewees. The focus is thereby on discerning the stages of the process rather than detail them on a micro level.

Table 7-1 below depicts an overview the 5 vignettes presented in this section.

# GBTP	Vignette / *Facet*	Overview
1 GBTP Resources 1	The vignette GBTP Resources Company contains illustrations of three facts.	
	Delivery and Integration	Illustrates the GBTP's focus on delivery and how the professional service firm engaged was integrated in the resources companies organizational processes including their recruiting and performance review to ensure the same attitude towards delivery.
	Communication Manner	Illustrates first how communication manners differ depending on the cultural context in an example where these were unintentionally neglected and thus required to be adapted. Second, it highlights arrangements made to ensure a better cultural awareness and preventing issues caused by cultural differences.
	Language Proficiency	Illustrates how a GBTP adapted changed its scope to cater the insufficient proficiency in the project language by providing documentation and deliverables in the local language.
2 GBTP Chemicals 1	Cultural Differences	Illustrates how differences in the approach to project work of involved parties given their cultural background, where recognised, understood and addressed by providing structured guidelines and facilitating workshops.
3 GBTP Automotive 1	Adoption to Environment	Illustrates the need to adapt to the environment of a GBTP. It highlights the importance of considering cultural differences, customs and variation in the language proficiency, in the first instance.
4 GBTP Consumer 8	Change of Approach	Illustrates that an approach proven to be successful in a similar project was required to be adapted to the needs and demands of the GBTPs environment after recognising that it did neither meet these nor deliver the intended results.
5 GBTP Electronics 1	Ignorance of Culture	Illustrates how a program manager ignores despite his awareness cultural norms and business manners.

Table 7-1: Overview Vignettes - Process for Managing Culture in GBTPs

It is to be noted that the vignettes presented in the following do not necessarily encompass or report on each facet of the process for managing culture, construct of

culture or contextual variables. They provide a snapshot of the lived experiences of senior management practitioners interviewed.

7.2.1 Vignette One: GBTP Resources Company

The following vignette of a resource company's GBTP [GBTP Resources 1] illustrates three facets of the process for managing culture reported on by interviewees. These are:

- Delivery and integration
- Communication manner
- Language proficiency

The GBTP's key characteristics are depicted in the following Table 7-2.

ID	**GBTP Resources 1**
Scope	Global Business Transformation & ERP Implementation
Type	Truly Global
HQ	Asia
Role of IT	IS Implementation
Industry Sector	Resources
Interviewees	Project Manager - External [PSF-03] Engagement Manager - External [PSF-05] Project Manager - External [PSF-14] Program Director - Internal [GM-11] Project Manager - Internal [GM-12]

Table 7-2: Characteristics GBTP Resources 1

In is noted that vignette 'GBTP Resources Company' [GBTP Resources 1]] in Chapter 6 elaborated in the GBTP's construct of culture.

7.2.1.1 Facet: Delivery and Integration

'Delivery and Integration' illustrates how the resources company made the professional service firm engaged adapt to their distinct focus on delivery. Two aspects are highlighted to set the scene.

> *"First of all I think it needs to be clear what your objectives and your scope are. What are you trying to achieve with the initiative"* [GM-12]

Figure 7-2 is to illustrate the stages of the process for managing culture of facet 'Delivery and Integration'

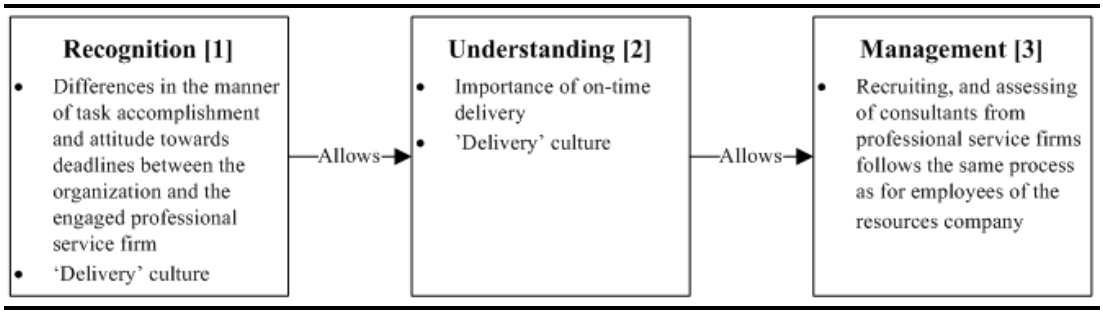

Figure 7-2: Process for Managing Culture Facet 'Delivery and Integration'

Recognition: At the outset of the GBTP, discrepancies between the resources company's culture and the involved professional service firm emerged, particularly in respect to the resources company's focus on and understanding of delivery.

> *"The* [PSF A] *and other people struggled in our* [Resources Company - GBTP Resources 1] *culture* [..] [Resources Company - GBTP Resources 1] *has a very much strong, deliverable culture. So if you are going to deliver X on Y date, you make sure you deliver X on Y date. It is not okay, to say look we have these issues that is why we are late or did not deliver this quality, it is just not accepted at all* [..] *When the* [Professional Service Firm 'name'] *folks came in they were not used to that. So if they missed a deliverable they would go look we tried really hard but these things happen that we did not have control of. They thought that would be accepted and it was not. That impacted their performance reviews and it actually upset them quite a lot because they felt that they had done everything they could have."* [GM-12]

Understanding: It was to understand the importance of deliverables but also the implications of achievement and failure to deliver.

> *"If you promised something you have to deliver it. Your job is to overcome the obstacles or flag them up so they can get dealt with. It is not okay to say you missed it but you tried* [..] *It is very black and white on deliverables, you either deliver them or you do not. And if you deliver them, you are highly recognized, if you do not, the opposite is true* [..] *if you say you are going to do something in a particular way, you do it in that particular way. When you commit to doing it, you absolutely deliver on that."* [GM-11]

Management: The integration of the involved parties of the professional service firm in the resources company's organisational processes including recruiting and performance review. This was to allow for one common baseline and full integration of the professional service firm.

> *"We have made a point of integrating the* [Professional Service Firm 'name'] *folks so they go through the same performance process, they get recruited and selected on our value set etcetera. We have made a conscious effort to integrate* [Resources Company - GBTP Resources 1] *people and* [Professional Service Firm 'name'] *people. You can only do that if you have a common value set.* [..] *Making sure you get the deliverables. I mean that effectively is what drove us to make sure that we had a performance management process for* [Professional Service Firm 'name'] *and ourselves. If we did not have such a deliverable process we probably would not have done that."* [GM-11]

The integration of the involved professional service firm also included the removal of distinguishing symbols or artefacts between the parties involved.

> *"One of the things we also push very hard is not to have a distinguishing, any distinguishing symbols between* [Professional Service Firm 'name] *and* [Resources Company - GBTP Resources 1] *to the extent that we do not let the* [Professional Service Firm 'name] *people use an* [Professional Service Firm 'name] *screen saver even."* [GM-11]

It was also noted that the approach of a strong drive towards delivery taken was not well perceived among all involved parties. This applied particularly to the Asian culture of the environment in which the GPTPs headquarters is situated.

> "[Resources Company - GBTP Resources 1] *are very strong delivery focus and is quite aggressive about that. And then that collides a little bit with the Asian culture, where they are a little bit more softly spoken. They avoid that confrontation. We do have a bit of a culture clash going on there where people get really upset, to the point where you know they want to leave the project."* [GM-11]

7.2.1.2 Facet: Communication Manner

The second facet of this vignette depicts differences in the communication manners based upon the involved individuals' cultural background, their national culture. It illustrates how individuals of different cultural backgrounds perceived some communication as offensive even though this was not the intention.

Background: The interviewee was an executive director of a professional service firm. She was leading the conversation and did not recognise that her communication manner was perceived as aggressive until a colleague of hers pointed out her aggressive stance. This colleague had the same cultural background as the team other members with whom she, the executive partner communicated.

Figure 7-3 is to illustrate the stages of the process for managing culture of facet 'Communication Manner', which first regresses back from the stage of management to the stage of recognition.

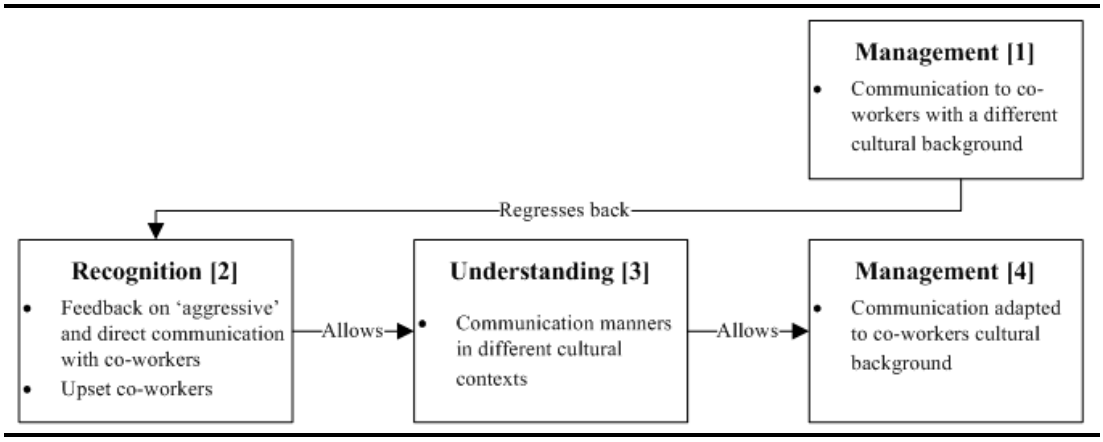

Figure 7-3: Process for Managing Culture Facet 'Communication Manner'

Management: The communication with the project team was perceived as normal by the interviewee.

> *"One day when I did the process reviews for the procurement teams and I had an hour where I sat with the guys and asked them a couple of questions around their business process document and I actually thought that I did not challenge them, I was asking them a couple of questions but I was not judgmental, I did not tell them that I felt it was not a good document, I was just asking a couple of questions."* [PSF-14]

Recognition: A colleague reported to the interviewee that her manner of communication was not in accordance with the cultural norms of the audience and thus perceived as aggressive.

> *"The feedback that I got was that the team was quite upset with me. There were, some of the Asian guys, they perceived it the way, how I handled it was quite aggressive. You know,* [Name] *came back to me and he said they are not used to that in the Asian culture."* [PSF-14]

Understanding: As a consequence she reflected on the feedback, her previous experience and the importance of being aware of the culture in place or culture interacting.

> *"It seems to be, you have to be very tactful and you have to almost know someone a lot longer before you actually almost criticize and ask them questions about how they do things and what they do."* [PSF-14]

Management: Based on incident and her feedback, the interviewee adapted her approach in communicating with the Asian project members. The lesson learnt was that:

> *"Adapt your communication for your different audiences, take into account the different cultures so what you are saying is actually received in the way it was intended."* [GM-11]

The interviewee further detailed that while the mode of communication might change, the intent of the messaged did not.

> *"We made a point that when we push communication out to the different sites, that the sites can change that communication. Not change the intent or the messages but change how that is delivered and if it caters for the different audiences, that was the key decision that has been made."* [GM-11]

In addition, arrangements were made to prevent similar miscommunication included the facilitation of cross-cultural training in order to ensure awareness of cultural differences and allow for appropriate interaction with the cultures in place.

> *"We changed the way that we engage people so the Asian culture. We put some of our managers through an Asian awareness process so that they understood the intricacies of Asian culture."* [GM-11]

7.2.1.3 Facet: Language Proficiency

The facet on 'language proficiency' illustrates how differences in language proficiency were recognised and accommodated by an extensions of the GBTP's scope, adapting to the environment.

Figure 7-4 is to illustrate the stages of the process for managing culture of facet 'Language Proficiency' which are elaborated on in the following.

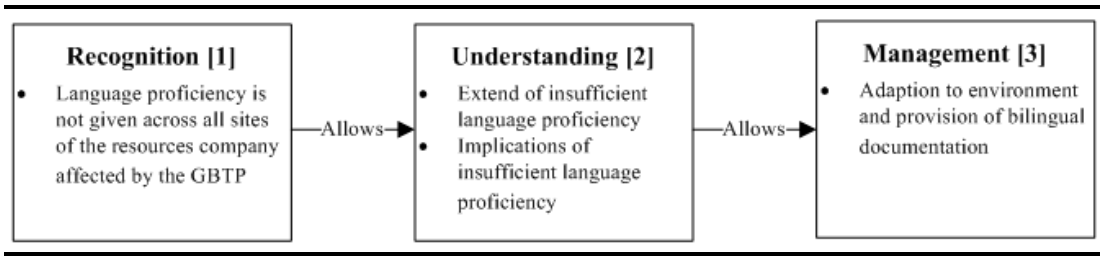

Figure 7-4: Process for Managing Culture Facet 'Language Proficiency'

Recognition: This is the recognition that the deliverables of the GBTP written in English do not meet the needs of the South American sites where team members are predominantly Spanish.

> *"Different divisions, different product market groups. One is predominantly located in Southern America and is mainly Spanish literate. Our initiative intends to deliver a set of processes, reengineering processes as well as systems in the English language only."* [GM-12]

Understanding: Language was to be understood as important part of culture this applied particularly to sites where many people had limited proficiency in the project language and it was important to adapt and provide information in the local language.

> *"We came to realize and we are actually making adjustments accordingly since language is an important part of a culture. It is a way, it is a method by which you are giving a fact or making visible what your culture is first of all.* [..] *in any business and definitely in ours you work with a lot of external parties, local external parties. So you have to be able to work with these parties in their native language."* [GM-12]

Management: This was an action taken to adapt to the needs of the GBTP's environment by providing services in a second language to ensure interaction.

> *"We are currently looking at actually not only supporting English but also supporting Spanish for those individuals that need to work in their language with these external partners."* [GM-12]

7.2.2 Vignette Two: Cultural Differences

In this vignette titled 'Cultural Differences', an interviewee working for a professional service firm illustrates how cultural differences were recognised,

understood, and managed based on his experiences in a global supply-chain process improvement initiative by one of the largest companies in the chemical sector. Table 7-3 provides and overview of the GBTP's characteristics.

ID	**GBTP Chemicals 1**
Scope	Supply Chain Process Improvement
Type	Truly Global
HQ	United States
Role of IT	IS Support
Industry Sector	Chemicals
Interviewees	Project Manager - External [PSF-11]

Table 7-3: Characteristics GBTP Chemical 1

Figure 7-5 is to illustrate the stages of the process for managing culture of vignette 'Cultural Differences'. These are then further detailed in the following.

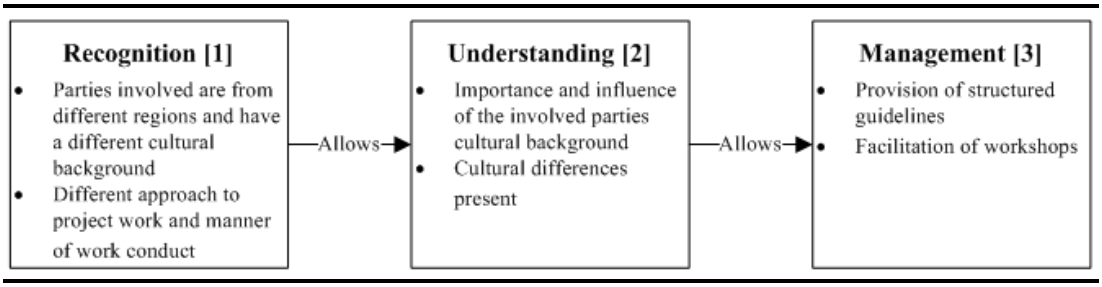

Figure 7-5: Process for Managing Culture Vignette 'Cultural Differences'

Recognition: This was the recognition that the supply chain project involved parties from different geographical regions and thus different cultural backgrounds and that their approach to project work was implied in their manner of work conduct.

> *"The chemical company which I worked on the supply chain had people not only from Canada and the US but also people from Europe in particular from Switzerland.* [..] *It was very interesting to see the dynamics between the Swiss, the Canadians and the Americans on the supply chain project. The Americans want to jump to a solution right away, the Canadians were somewhere in the middle and the Swiss want to understand the problems and issues that the company was experiencing in its supply chain operations before they even started talking about solutions."* [PSF-11]

Understanding: This was the understanding of the importance and influence of the involved parties' cultural background, such as the national culture of Canada, the

United States and Switzerland as well as the discrepancies between those. This applied in particular to the senior management practitioner facilitating the project.

> *"National culture does influence things and the facilitator was attempting to guide and provide advice for the corporation, it is very important that the facilitator understands the different cultures that the various participants come from.* [..] *Those* [cultural differences] *were the natural inclinations of the people from Switzerland, Canada and the US."* [PSF-11]

Management: The supply chain project dealt with the different culture types present and cultural differences inherent by providing structured guidelines and facilitation of workshops. This allowed less misunderstanding of the cultural differences between the involved parties.

> *"We provided a very specific series of steps that the team would have to go through that meant we had to slow down the Americans, we had to speed up the Swiss, the Canadians were just about right* [..] *in a very structured way leading them through a series of facilitated sessions that would allow them to come up with solutions to the business issues and problems that they had in an orchestrated way. Fortunately that worked very well"* [PSF-11]

The clue in the management of this GBTP was the *recognition* of the cultural background of involved parties was based on the country they came from in order to *understand* them and adapt the approach to *management*.

> *"We needed always to be aware of the fact that there were people from different parts of the world and they had a need to progress at either a faster or a slower pace."* [PSF-11]

7.2.3 Vignette Three: Adaption to Environment

The vignette titled 'Adaption to Environment' illustrates how cultural differences and insufficient language proficiency were not recognised in a joint project between a French and German automotive company. Only as issues emerged, were these causes of issues further investigated, understood and managed. Table 7-4 provides and overview of the GBTP's characteristics.

ID	**GBTP Automotive 1**
Scope	Joint Engineering & Developmentproject of two Automotive Companies
Type	Truly Global
HQ	Germany & France
Role of IT	IS Support
Industry Sector	Automotive
Interviewees	Project Manager - External [PSF-06]

Table 7-4: Characteristics GBTP Automotive 1

The interviewee [German and fluent in German, English and French] described his role in this sub-project of a GBTP as follows:

> *"I was responsible to organize and conduct a kind of international road show for this project. To sell the project, to motivate the people and to show the benefits."* [PSF-06]

Figure 7-6 is to illustrate the stages of the process for managing culture of vignette 'Adaption to Environment'. It highlights how the attempt to ignore culture despite cultural differences were recognized fails in the first instance but was managed well after regressing back the stages of recognition and understanding.

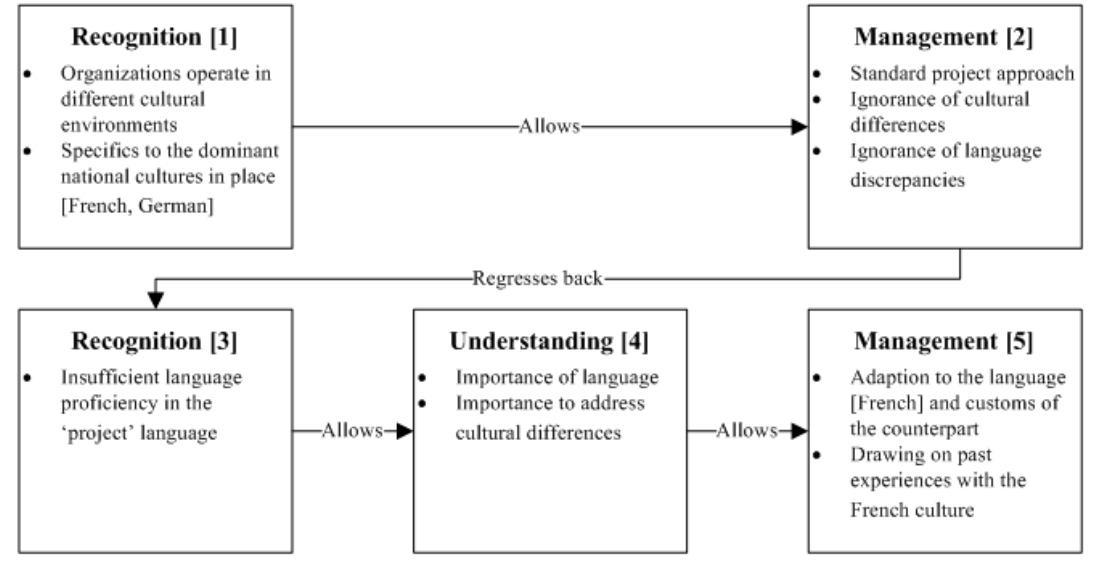

Figure 7-6: Process for Managing Culture Vignette 'Adaption to Environment'

Recognition: The interviewees experiences in the cultural environment of both companies, as well as countries in which these were located, allowed him to identify cultural differences present in the GBTP's sub-project.

> *"In Germany for example, you need very detailed, it must be one hundred per cent correct* [..] *when you have to present in front of people which are not native speakers, like French people, always the problem that their English is relatively bad."* [PSF-06]

Management: Despite the previously experienced cultural differences and insufficient proficiency of the English language by the French counterpart, it seems these were not taken into account.

> *"I did not think about it, we just went there, we went to Paris we presented in English."* [PSF-06]

Recognition: The presentation was not fully understood by all parties. The process for managing culture thus returns to the stage of recognition.

> *"We found out that half the people do not speak English and when they asked questions we had to translate it always. It took a lot of time and there were misunderstandings and it was a disaster."* [PSF-06]

Understanding: At this stage the dimension of the issue became apparent.

> *"This was a big lesson learned."* [PSF-06]

Management: The interviewee, by drawing on the 'lesson learned', and his professional as well as personal experience with the French culture, allowed him to change his approach by adapting to the language and customs of the French counterpart.

> *"I changed completely the way I communicated with them because my personal, private background I am married with a French woman and able to speak French. I presented in French, the first time. I invited them to a French restaurant to convince them - I am also familiar with good wines and know about good restaurants and the way of life they live."* [PSF-06]

The adaption to the culture and language of the French counterparts, in contrast to the first encounter, was highly appreciated and resulted in respect for this person:

> *"At the moment that they saw I understand the French culture and I can speak French they respected me one hundred per cent and they wanted to*

do everything only with me. [..] *they were completely surprised because at the first meeting they just knew my name and they thought okay, there is this bloody German coming and when they saw okay, he knows about our culture and he is not one hundred per cent German, he is also familiar with the French culture. They respected me very much so it was my big point with this project."* [PSF-06]

He further emphasised his lesson learnt out of this experience, stressing the need to adapt accordingly.

"I really learned about the cultural differences and the importance to be aware about these differences. My lesson learned was, you cannot do the same presentation everywhere, so you had to adapt it accordingly." [PSF-06]

7.2.4 Vignette Four: Change of Approach

The vignette titled 'Change of Approach' elaborates on how a professional service firm had to change their approach adapting to the scene of the GBTP and its local environment to meet the client's demands and requirements. Table 7-5 provides and overview of the GBTP's characteristics.

ID	**GBTP Consumer 8**
Scope	Global ERP Implementation
Type	Truly Global
HQ	Latin America
Role of IT	IS Implementation
Industry Sector	Consumer Goods
Interviewees	Project Manager - Internal [GM-08] Project Manager - External [PSF-14]

Table 7-5: Characteristics GBTP Consumer 8

Figure 7-7 is to illustrate the stages of process for managing culture of vignette 'Change of Approach'.

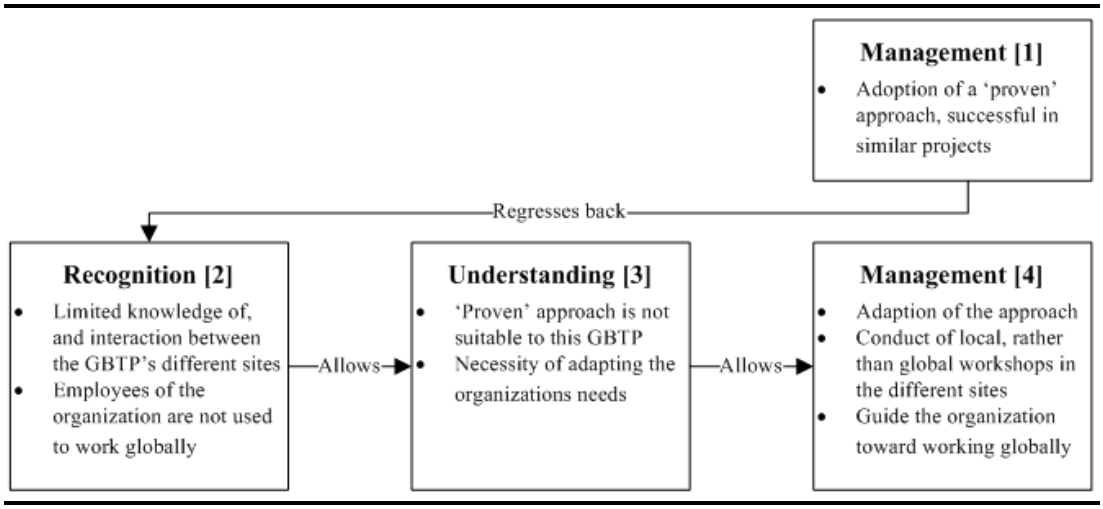

Figure 7-7: Process for Managing Culture Vignette 'Change of Approach'

Management: The professional service firm jump-started the GBTP by adopting an approach to management that has been proven to be successful in similar GBTPs in the past.

> *"Our initial design approach was to have two sets workshops, very similar to what we had at* [previous GBTP she was involved in]. *It was actually three workshops, so one in analysis and practice, so conceptual design and then two during the design phase. And they were going to happen locally within South Africa pulling all the regions in together"* [PSF-14]

Recognition & Understanding: As the project progressed, it was recognised that the planned approach was not appropriate to the environment of the GBTP.

> *"After the second round of workshops we realized that that was not going to work because the representative that we had from the region, first of all did not really know what was happening in the country and you know we could not get proper input into the processes, therefore we felt uncomfortable."* [PSF-14]

Management: This resulted in a change of the approach by facilitating local workshops in the different regions involved instead of running all workshops in South Africa.

> *"We changed our approach to also now go and follow up those global workshops with regional workshops. So we went out to all the regions, facilitated the projects, we did all those countries in those regional workshops.* [..] *first of all* [involved parties] *within those region talk to each other and then we followed it up with another final workshop where we got*

> *the regional representative now back together again but at least after those regional representatives had detailed workshops with each of their countries. So we had to change our approach."* [PSF-14]

In addition the interviewee added that this organisation was not used to working globally and had to adapt to the new situation.

> *"They definitely are not used to having global discussions so we had to change our approach to I suppose slowly move them out of that comfort zone of theirs."* [34_CONS-12]

This vignette highlighted the importance to locally engage with the involved regions of a GBTP, particularly in cases where these are geographically dispersed over the globe. Also, it showed that a single approach could not necessarily be applied to all environments despite having been proven successful in the past.

7.2.5 Vignette Five: Ignorance of Culture

In this vignette titled 'Ignorance of Culture', a German director who was working for the German office of an international professional service firm reflects on setting up a GBTP for a multinational Japanese electronics company in Japan, which he was leading. This vignette illustrates how he, in contrast to recommendation of colleagues, and awareness and understanding of the culture in place, acted in opposition to cultural norms and what generally would have been expected. This action proved him to be successful by preserving his European management style opposed to adapting to the Asian, Japanese culture in place. Table 7-6 provides and overview of the GBTP's characteristics.

ID	**GBTP Electronics 1**
Scope	Process management
Type	Truly Global
HQ	Asia
Role of IT	IS Support
Industry Sector	Electronics
Interviewees	Program Manager - External [PSF-06]

Table 7-6: Characteristics GBTP Electronics 1

Figure 7-8 is to illustrate the stages of the process for managing culture of vignette 'Ignorance of Culture' as well as the elements of enablement.

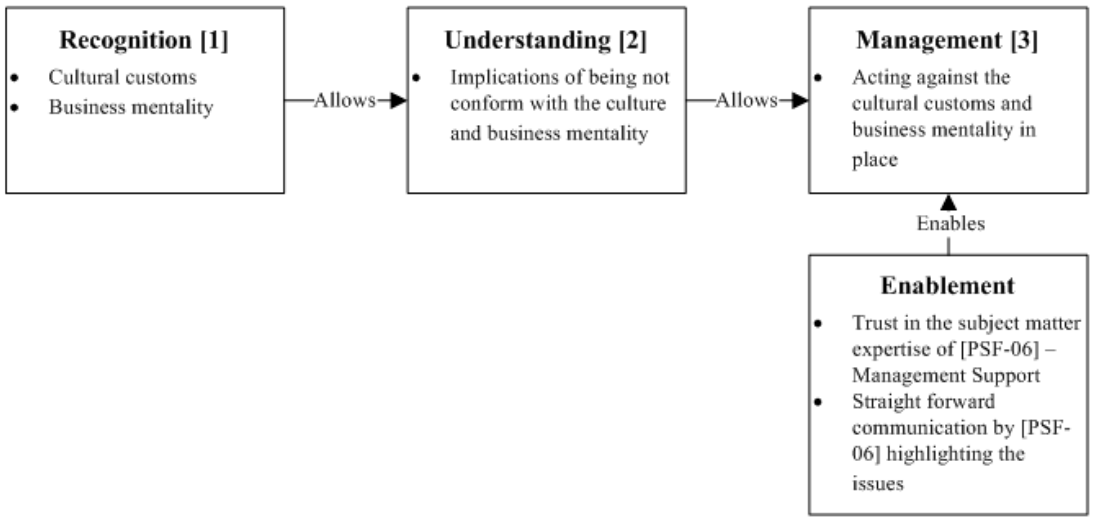

Figure 7-8: Process for Managing Culture Vignette 'Ignorance of Culture'

Recognition: The interviewee highlighted his awareness of the cultural customs and traits in the Japanese culture.

> *"When you come to Japan and you work together with a senior management of the company there, you have to interact and communicate completely different. In Japan, everybody tries to be very polite and it is not a very good idea to say directly when things are not running very good. You have to be very diplomatic."* [PSF-06]

Understanding: He also understood the implications of the Japanese culture in place, for he was advised by the experience of his colleagues with this customer who advised him to behave as the Japanese do.

> *"You cannot work with everybody, you have to stay on your level of management so when you have workshops with top management, you only can talk to the chief of the department but not to his employees."* [PSF-06]

Background on the GBTP revealed that some truth of the situation had to be communicated.

> *"Everybody in the* [GBTP Electronics 1] *knew that it is not running good but nobody had the power, nobody was able to tell the management the truth. Because in Japanese culture you cannot tell your boss that it is not running well, that he has to change his mind, then you are dead* [..] *Nobody inside* [GBTP Electronics 1] *and even in* [Professional Service Firm 'name] *in Japan* [..] *they all feared to tell the truth* [..] *I was told by my colleagues in Japan that I have to respect the Japanese culture. To be polite, not to tell too many negative things, not to show them too many painful points at the*

> *beginning. They prepared myself for the upcoming workshops and asked me to respect the way they do the business with their Japanese colleagues from* [GBTP Electronics 1]*"* [PSF-06]

Management: In contrast to the recommendations of colleagues and his own cultural experience with the Japanese culture, he decided to ignore the cultural norms of the Japanese.

> *"I saw so many problems in this project, the project plan was 'bullshit', sorry for this. The planning was an absolute catastrophe; they had absolutely the wrong approach to handle all this different topics. The only way was to change the way to interact with them. So I told them exactly what they had to do. I did everything completely different what they wanted from me and at the end this was a big success because I am the first in this project who really identified and summarized the major problems in one meeting."* [PSF-06]

This resulted in a reorganisation of the project as the interview reflected.

> *"After we really told them where the biggest problems are and the biggest issues, they changed it. They changed the project plans, they changed the project organization, the staffing, they reorganized the complete way they did the project."* [PSF-06]

It has to be noted here that the professional service firm and the interviewee in particular were selected for this GBTP because of his subject matter expertise and broad experience. In retrospect he further admitted:

> *"This was quite risky for me to interact like this but it was the only way to survive in this project."* [PSF-06]

7.3 Reflections on the Process for Managing Culture

"Managing culture is a complex and vital part of the work of general manager. It can be one of the most powerful tools that a manager can employ in their efforts to get the diverse and dispersed set of people that comprise most organizations to work together in a coherent, consistent and purposeful way. Culture can also be one of the most vexing barriers to managing change in an organization" (Christensen & Shu, 2006, p. 8).

The processual model of the process for managing culture presented in this chapter describes at an aggregated level on how to deal with culture in GBTPs. The derived processual model is sequential in theory, although in practice it resembles the metaphor of the Turkish navigator's voyage[34], which begins with an ultimate objective, rather than the one of the European navigator's, which begins with a plan (Suchman, 2007). The process for managing culture has an objective to deal with culture. This process is similar to a change process, which *"is a typically an ongoing process made up of opportunities and challenges that are not necessarily predictable at the start"* (Orlikowski & Hofman, 1997, p. 20). Akin to Orlikowski's improvisational model of change, (1997) the process for managing culture is to be seen as a guide rather than as a step-by-step blueprint on an activity level. This process involves the following stages:

Recognition: This stage revolves around the need for awareness of the construct of culture in place. The task involves identifying and apprehending the culture types instantiated in the GBTP, observing the expressed cultural differences between those cultures found within the GBTP, and to identify the contextual variables applicable to the focal GBTP as well as uncovering any additional needs and issues which may be present.

Understanding: This stage must first assess, and then comprehend the construct of culture and contextual variables present as well as the implications of both. Thereafter, in this phase the task is to evaluate these against existing knowledge and outline the issues to be addressed.

Management: This stage follows the stages of recognition and understanding as a response to the identified needs and issues in the stages of recognition and

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[34] *"Thomas Gladwin Gladwin, T. (1964). Culture and Logical Process. In W. H. Goodenough (Ed.), Explorations in Cultural Anthrophology (pp. 167-177). New York, NJ: McGraw-Hill. has written a brilliant article contrasting the method by which the Turkish navigate the open sea, to that by which Europeans navigate. He points out that the Europeans navigator begins with a plan - a course - which he has charted according to certain universal principles, and he carries out his voyage by relating his every move to that plan. His effort throughout his voyage is directed to remaining 'on course'. If unexpected events occur he must first alter the plan, then respond accordingly. The Trukese navigator begins with an objective rather than a plan. He sets off toward the objective and responds to conditions as they arise in an ad hoc fashion. He utilizes information provided by the wind, the waves, the tide and current, the fauna, the stars, the clouds, the sound of the water on the side of the boat, and he steers accordingly. His effort is directed to doing whatever is necessary to reach the objective. If asked, he can point his objective at any moment, but he cannot describe his course."* [Berreman, G. (1966). Anemic and Emetic Analysis in Social Anthropology. *American Anthropologist, 68*(2), 346-354. in \Suchman, L. A. (2007). *Human-Machine Reconfigurations: Plans and Situated Actions* (2nd ed.). New York, NJ: Cambridge University Press.]

understanding. The task in this stage is to plan and execute an appropriate strategy to deal with culture. A particular strategy of adaption was further elaborated, which provides the manager the means to change their plan in accordance with new issues or new knowledge. The management stage is a continuous process during the life of the GBTP.

Enablement: Three elements of enablement were discovered as salient to all stages of the process to mange culture. These were: management support, communication and training, though their presence in GBTPs is by no means a guarantee for appropriately dealing with culture. Following the analogy of the Turkish navigator *"effort is directed to doing whatever is necessary to reach the objective"* (Berreman, 1966, p. 347).

The stages of the processual model are congruent with the three waves of IS culture research identifying the differences, explaining the differences and managing the differences (Leidner, 2010), which build on each other as do the stages of the process for managing culture. In other words *"one cannot explain differences until they have been identified, nor can one manage cultural differences until one has identified them and understood them."* (Leidner, 2010, p. 71). The three stages of recognition, understanding and management in turn are backed and legitimised by a significant amount of research, which specifically allows for the integration of existing work to raise the theoretical level of this study's contribution in continuing research.

In respect to existing frameworks to manage GBTP, the proposed processual model complements existing change management and project management methodologies by paying particular attention to the aspect and effects of culture. Though much has been said in the literature about the importance of culture, little has been said about its management. Also, the focus and objective of the process for managing culture or to deal with culture, is distinctly different from the other models in the culture space which mostly evolve around building a culture (compare Schouten & McAlexander, 1995), evolving a culture (compare Irwin, 1973) or changing a culture (compare Silverzweig & Allen, 1976; Bennett, et al., 1994). This research has shown that there are more culture types present in a GBTP than in a single organisation and that their interaction is complex and unpredictable. Though

some GBTP set out to build an appropriate culture for that GBTP, most are reactive to the cultures within the GBTP. The processual model adds deliberate stages to recognise the culture set of the GBTP and to understand how these cultures will effect the execution of the GBTP.

To the practitioner, the processual model of the process for managing culture is conjectured to be of high relevance, applicable throughout all phases of GBTP, though the research focus was on the establishment phase of a GBTP. Also its application is seen as very realistic and achievable.

First, the processual model is of high relevance to practitioners as it addresses a contemporary management issue in GBTPs. GBTPs are often reported failing because of culture and people aspects (Dinsmore, 1984) (Verma, 1995) (Detert, et al., 2000) (Kaplan, 2000) (Davison & Martinsons, 2003) (Meaney & Pung, 2008) (Ashurst & Hodges, 2010) (Keller, et al., 2011).

Second, the processual model provides to practitioners and organisations dealing with GBTPs the means to recognise the types of culture present, to understand their differences and the implication of these differences, and consequently to manage these differences to increase the chances for successful execution of the GBTP.

Third, the processual model is realistic given its empirical grounding in practice. This is based on the view of senior management practitioners, which oversee GBTPs as well as have the power to make decisions. In addition, interview research as strategy for data generation allowed the author to take an external and internal perspective on the set of sixty-one GBTPs the thirty-two interviewees reported.

Fourth, the process of managing culture, appropriately dealing with culture in GBTPs is conjectured to be achievable if the enabling elements of management support, communication and training are in place. Also, the processual model of the process for managing culture provides and detailed account of how to address aspects of culture present in GBTPs. The seven vignettes provided later in this chapter not only illustrated the process of how to manage culture in the language of the interviewees, but they also provided examples of how culture was dealt with in practice. These are similar to the cases in textbooks, though the vignettes reflect the unedited voice of practitioners.

Lastly, common sense may be applied. Ohmae (1989) compared the management of global companies with growing plants and flowers. It seems to be common sense to everyone that planting is dependent on the soil, light exposure, water and extremes of temperature. In consequence, no one would suggest planting an indigenous flora from Japan, in the desert, the arctic tundra or the tropical rain forest as they would not grow. *"The culture of an organization is like the soil; a business is like a tree growing in the soil; and profits are like the fruits of the trees. If you want to harvest a variety of fruits, then you have to plant each tree in its appropriate setting"* (Ohmae, 1989, p. 141). Appropriated to GBTPs, these seek to create a new and universally adaptable species of plants, without considering nor analysing the environment and assuming that these plants can grow even faster than 'normal' plants. Dealing with culture is an ongoing and iterative journey where the outcome is to continually improve. Similarly, building a sand castle it is an iterative journey. During holidays, you and your kids may build a sand castle, but in most cases the next day it is not there any more - time, sun, rain or other factors destroy it; also a sand castle is not really durable. Hence, it is rebuilding the sand castle every day during the holidays, bigger and nicer. Similar dealing with culture in GBTPs, it is a continuous process enabled by the elements of enablement as well learning for experience.

Reflecting on my own experience working on GBTPs and in a culturally diverse environment, in different countries, this model contributes substantially to the understanding and dealing with culture in GBTPs. I would have welcomed a model like that or similar when dealing with culture, especially when working on my first international assignment in a culturally diverse environment. Multiple experiences shared by senior management practitioners during the interviews were also experienced in a similar manner by the author. To be highlighted is the fact that the processual model is not strictly one directional, is iterative, and allows to regress back from one stage to an earlier if required i.e. if management of culture fails one can regress back to either the stage of recognition or understanding.

Overall, the derived processual model integrates the categories and concepts of higher abstraction derived from the data. The stages of recognition, understanding and management are on a similar level of abstraction as other models in the space of

culture. They are like Irwin's (Irwin, 1973) model on the evolution of a culture [Articulation, Expansion, Corruption, Decline] or the model for organisational change by Silverzweig and Allen (1976) [Analyse, Experience, Modify, Sustain]. Also, existing management models are on a similarly abstract level as the derived processual model. Examples of these management models include the Plan-Do-Check-Act [PDCA] Cycle, which is also known as the Shewhart, or the Deming Cycle (Shewhart, 1939). This PDCA model is an iterative management cycle towards establishing perfect operations, and it has its roots in control and continuous improvement methods, which seek to reduce variation, understand the continual process of improvement and to manage the processes and product variants. Another management model is the Observe, Orient, Decide Act [OODA] loop or Boyd Cycle (Boyd, 1987), which was developed in the military space as an attempt to explain why American fighter pilots were more successful than their adversaries in the Korean War. Both examples were developed in a specific context but claim to be applicable beyond the foundational context. The OODA loop instance facilitates organizations to seek process information faster and in turn act faster than their counterparts (Brehmer, 2005). In the culture space, context it is reported to shape the conceptualisation of culture (Sackmann & Phillips, 2004), yet the Boyd Cycle and the Shewhart cycles have been employed in many different contexts to some effect. Similarly, it is proposed that the processual model can also be applied in different contexts to the source context of a GBTP

This proposal is based on the observation that management processes can also be aggregated to an abstract level and applied in other contexts. An example of this abstraction and applicability of management processes is the seminal study by Mintzberg et al. (1976) on twenty-five strategic decision processes. This study showed that decisions have a basic structure of three central phases: the identification phase [Decision recognition routine, diagnosis routine], developmental phase [Search routine, design routine] and selection phase [Screen routine, evaluation-choice routine, authorisation routine]. The three stages of the process for managing culture may also have underlying routines, factors, processes, though are these beyond the scope of this study but has potential for future research.

Overall, the discovered processual model of the process for managing culture is proposed to be *"sufficiently general to be applicable to a range of situations"* (Orlikowski, 1993, p. 335). At the same time, its development meets the

requirements of a grounded theory being *"abstract of time, place and people"* (Glaser & Holton, 2004, p. 9) and of an Basic Social Process, having three stages [recognition, understanding and management], evolving over time [sequential nature], and reflecting the evolving nature [dealing with culture, process for managing culture, processual model] (Glaser, 1978).

7.4 Synopsis Process for Managing Culture

This chapter described the processual model of the process for managing culture, and proposed a sequential integration of the categories recognition, understanding and management as stages of the processual model, with enablement supporting each stage. Moreover, the derived processual model is informed by the construct of culture and the contextual variables to GBTPs. It applied a process perspective to open the 'black box' of how to deal with culture in GBTPs. This processual model is derived from the data generated, and no theoretical lens was applied during the data analysis.

The pinnacle to this empirically grounded processual model of the process for managing culture is that it is abstract of time, place and people. Thus, it is applicable to any GBTPs. In addition, the processual model is of high relevance to practice and its application is conjectured to be realistic and achievable.

The next and last chapter of this study summarises the study, discusses its implications and limitations and outlines future directions.

Chapter 8: Closure

It is with literature as with law or empire - an established name is an estate in tenure, or a throne in possession.

-- Edgar Allan Poe, 'Preface, Letter to Mr B …' in (Crotty, 1998, p. 214)

The theory discovered in this study informs the understanding of and dealing with culture in GBTPs. The study's implications are far reaching for both theory and practice. For theory this study provides a new and more complete way of describing culture as well as dealing with culture. At the same time the studies findings are applicable to practice allowing practitioners to understand the complex interwoven construct of culture and by providing guidelines for how to deal with culture.

The previous chapters presented the detailed description of the various phases of the research approach leading to the discovery of a theory to understand and deal with culture in GBTP that is grounded in the data generated. This chapter first recapitulates the undertaken study. Thereafter it summarizes the study's contributions, and discusses their implications to theory and practice. Finally, limitations and streams for future research are highlighted before concluding this study.

8.1 Reprise

Matters of culture are still an elusive concept and little understood phenomenon, despite being widely researched (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006) and its

importance within GBTPs acknowledged in both academia and practice (Gerstner, 2002) (Leung, et al., 2005) (Rigby & Bilodeau, 2011) (Katzenbach, et al., 2012). Prior to this study, no model existed yet that allowed to represent the construct of culture in GBTPs that is relevant to practice. Instead, research on culture was either comparative, evolving around understanding cultural attitudes or differences (Ives & Jarvenpaa, 1991; Tractinsky & Jarvenpaa, 1995; Myers & Tan, 2002; Niederman, et al., 2012); investigated culture on a single level (Karahanna, et al., 2005): ignoring the existence of multiple levels of culture (Cray & Mallory, 1998); see culture as a static construct, not evolving over time or with experience (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006; Pang, et al., 2010) as well as that the majority of research is rather conceptual than empirical studies (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006). The same applied for theories on dealing with culture.

This study set out to explore culture in GBTPs beyond traditional concerns of national and organisational culture, seeking to address the 'abstract wonderment' of what constitutes the construct of culture in GBTPs and how culture to deal with culture in such endeavours from the perspective of senior management practitioners.

The qualitative approach of grounded theory was used in this study and helped overcome the quantification of culture, such as the numerical differences between the cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980) on a national level. This interpretive approach allowed the researcher to conceptualise the complex phenomena of culture and to derive strategies to deal with culture in the context of GBTPs where culture is omnipresent and of high importance. Moreover, grounded theory provided an excellent set of procedures for data analysis and integration of related literature. A distinct feature of this study is its empirical grounding in the data, where data was generated through interviews with thirty-two significant individuals from across the world who reported on more than sixty-one GBTPs across several industries. This process yielded rich reports of their lived experiences working on GBTPs and anchored the discovered theory in empirical data.

The study's findings address the imperative of being able to describe and deal with culture. It provides an empirically grounded theoretical model of the construct of culture in a GBTP and a processual model of the process for managing culture;

these are the primary contributions of this study. The first model facilitates the understanding of the key elements: culture types, cultural differences and cultural diversity as well as their relationships to the construct of culture. In addition a typology of culture types has been developed which enlarges the view of culture beyond national and organisational culture including an industry culture, professional service firm culture and 'theme' culture all of which if instantiated shape the project culture of an GBTP. The second model suggests three stages that aid in dealing with culture. These three stages are recognition, understanding, management, which are enabled by management support, communication and training integrated in an processual model. This study also identified the contextual variables to GBTPs, which are geographically dispersed locations, language, and information technology.

In addition to the generated theory, the vignettes presented afford rare insight into the lived experience of senior management practitioners working on GBTPs, how they understand and deal with culture; they not only illustrate the theory but also provide examples for practice to draw from, and serve as an important starting point for a dialogue on the role of culture in GBTPs.

Overall, the aim of this study was to explore culture in GBTP and this was achieved through the discovered theory consisting of the theoretical model of the construct of culture and processual model of the process for managing culture. Both are significant contributions to theory and practice. It is to be noted that no claim is made that the discovered theory is exhaustive rather it is to be seen as an formulation of discovered, saturated and integrated categories grounded in the data generated. Future work should add on or modify the theory presented in this study.

Next is to detail these, this study's contributions and their implications.

8.2 Contributions and their Implications

This study's contributions are manifold. The central contributions are the theoretical model of the construct of culture and the processual model of the process for managing culture. The following is to summarize these and highlight their implications to theory, practice as well as the contributions to the research method.

8.2.1 Contributions and their Implications for Theory

Theory is *"a tool, and the only requirements for its successful use is the ability to see the parallels between theoretical constructs and real problems"* (Robey & Zmud, 1992, p. 25). In terms of this study, the tools are the theoretical model of the construct of culture as well as the process for managing culture in GBTPs; both decode the 'abstract wonderment' of culture within GBTPs and provide the means to comprehend real problems within GBTP. The grounded theory discovered in this study adds a significant contribution to the understanding of culture in GBTPs and how culture can be dealt with and can be classified as a middle-range substantive theory. In addition, the exploratory character of this study in itself is a major contribution of this study, outlining a program of future research.

Construct of Culture: The core category for describing culture which is central to the 'Theoretical Model of the Construct of Culture' is summarised as follows: Culture in GBTPs is a complex and interwoven construct, which consists of three elements: culture types, cultural differences, and cultural diversity. The concurrent existence of culture types leads to both cultural differences and cultural diversity. Cultural differences allow to identify culture types as well as they lead to cultural diversity. Figure 8-1 below shows the 'Theoretical Model of the Construct of Culture' as elaborated on in Chapter 6.

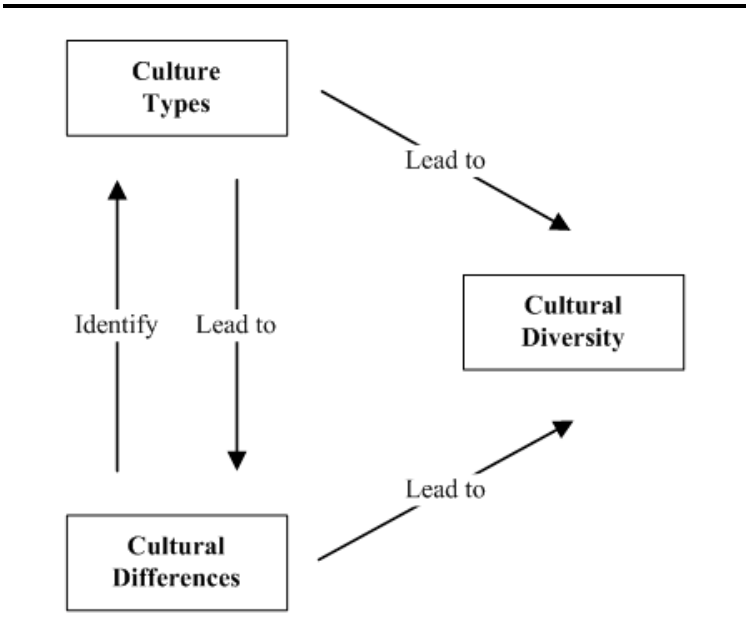

Figure 8-1: Theoretical Model of the Construct of Culture

The culture types are classified by a typology of culture types found in GBTP. This typology is a significant contribution, as it provides a conceptual model of culture in GBTP beyond national or organisational cultures, and the research identified, discerned, delineated and described these culture types. These are: industry culture, professional service firm culture and 'theme' culture. However, this study did not only identify the elements of the construct of culture and different culture types, but also provided a concise explanation of these and their interrelationships. This provides a solid basis for future research on culture. In a specific GBTP, the construct of culture helps describe the project culture of the GBTP. The project culture is shaped by the amalgamation of the culture types instantiated in a GBTP.

The theoretical model of the construct of culture provides a yet unseen perspective and more complete picture of culture. In contrast to the models in the literature, the derived model goes beyond comparative cross-cultural or intra-organisational research and is not limited to national and organisational culture. It represents a contemporary dynamic and multilevel view of culture that is grounded in the interview-generated empirical data generated. Moreover it serves as a baseline for future work by providing a framework to study culture, which to date is deemed difficult to study (Ngwenyama & Nielsen, 2003). Both the categories of cultural differences and cultural diversity add to the understanding of culture.

Cultural differences are important to understand (Ives & Jarvenpaa, 1991; Tractinsky & Jarvenpaa, 1995) as they can lead to issues, such as in global software development projects (Sarker, Sarker, & Jana, 2010). Examples include cultural differences between the client and project leader that can lead to conflicts in problem solving and task accomplishment (Walsham, 2002), the mismatch in national cultures or 'cultural distance' a reported common challenge in offshore outsourcing (Winkler, Dibbern, & Heinzl, 2008). Further, this study showed that cultural differences are not limited to differences between the same culture types (e.g. national culture such as in Evaristo, 2003) instantiated in GBTPs.

Cultural diversity in not a phenomenon unique to GBTPs that are 'truly global' spanning across countries regions, and geographically differentiated cultures, but also to GBTPs situated in one nation but classified as 'global by nation' or 'global by

involvement'. In turn the findings of this study are conjectured to be applicable to a much broader area of projects and organisations than just to GBTPs.

Furthermore, the typology of culture types helps identify the culture types instantiated in specific GBTP and describe its project culture.

Process to Manage Culture: The core category or basic social process for dealing with culture is shown in the 'Processual Model of the Process for Managing Culture'. It provides an integrated formulation of key categories and concepts discovered in the data that enable dealing with culture on the most abstract level. Its theoretical account can be summarised as follows: The process for managing culture is a tool that helps in dealing with culture in GBTPs. It represents sequential stages with the first stage being 'recognition', which then allows for the second stage of 'understanding', which in turn allows for the third stage the 'management'. The stages are not linear, may regress back and are enabled by management support, communication and training, the elements of enablement. The processual model is informed by the theoretical model of the construct of culture and the contextual variables to GBTPs. Figure 8-2 depicts the process to manage culture, arrows between the stages indicate the relationships allows, regresses back and enables as elaborated in Chapter 7.

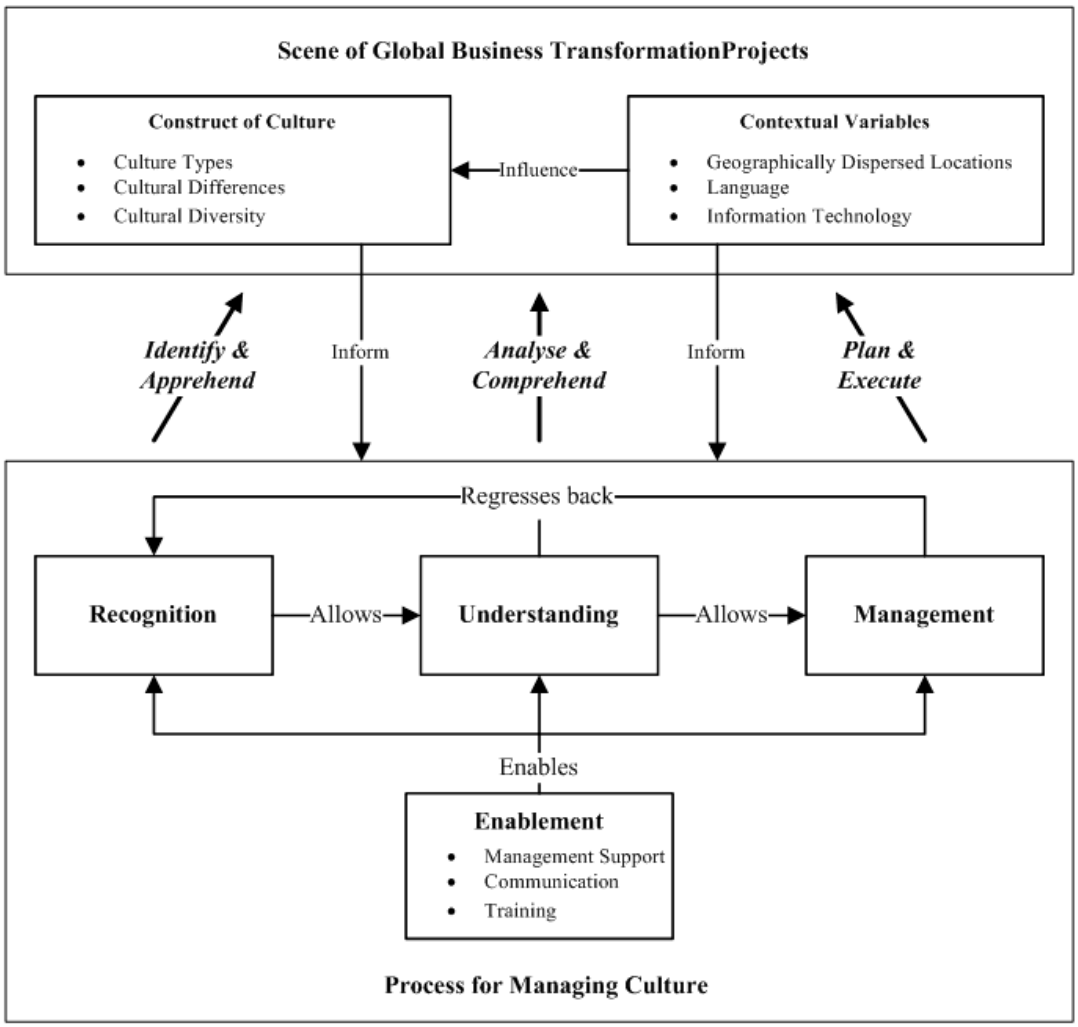

Figure 8-2: Processual Model of the Process for Managing Culture

The process for managing culture provides an empirically grounded management framework for dealing with culture in its entirety as described in the construct of culture. It goes beyond concentrating on elements of the construct of culture such as Winkler and colleagues (Winkler, et al., 2008) who conclude in their work that it is important to recognise, understand and manage cultural differences.

The stages of the processual model, which represents a continual and iterative process conjectured to be applicable throughout all project phases to continuously manage the multilevel and dynamic construct of culture. The strategy of adaption is one way to manage culture. It is to organise a 'something' so that it has the 'right' relationship, 'fit' with something. In other words, the strategy of adaption is one way to achieve 'fit', cultural fit being an important concept in research (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006). Further, it facilitates communication and knowledge transfer (Tey

& Idris, 2012). Also, the resultant processual model may support or add to, the establishment or change of culture.

Overall the processual model is conjectured to be applicable to any project or organisational setting in which more then one culture type is instantiated. This includes for example virtual teams to which culture is identified as a core element (Niederman, et al., 2012).

Also, the stages of the derived processual model integrate a wide body of knowledge, characterised as the waves of culture research in the information systems space (Leidner, 2010). The first wave of research dealt with 'identifying differences', the second wave of research dealt with 'explaining the differences', and the third wave of research dealt with 'managing differences'. This study integrates these different approaches or waves of research within one study.

Contextual Variables: The category of contextual variables to GBTP is an aggregation of the discovered concepts of geographically dispersed locations, language and information technology. These variables provide the means of describing the environment in which the GBTP is situated. They were identified as influencing the construct of culture and informing the process for managing culture.

In the light of existing models the discovered contextual variables to GBTP add to the established models of information systems research such as Ives et al. (1980) or the framework for global IS research (Ein-Dor, et al., 1993) with the discovered variables being present in every GBTP reported on in this study. It is noted that no claim is made that the presented contextual variables are exhaustive. Future research may validate and expand these.

8.2.2 Contributions and their Implications for Practice

Overall, the findings of this study are expected to be of particular benefit to practitioners working in a culturally diverse and complex environment such as GBTPs as well as multinational organisations or conglomerates that operate in such environment. The contributions to practice are through providing a means to understand and describe culture, and a guiding roadmap of how to deal with culture in GBTPs.

Construct of Culture and Contextual Variables: The theoretical model of the construct of culture and the contextual variables to GBTPs discovered in this study allow practitioners for an immediate situational assessment of any GBTP in regard to culture by comparing them with the theoretical model and its categories, concepts and properties. In particular, the culture types discovered and classified in the typology of culture types allow for a more comprehensive picture of a GBTP's construct of culture that is easy to digest and ready to apply to their work. The discovered model can act as a lens or filter that shows which elements are present and in a GBTP and which are not This in turn may result in a culture map of a GBTP's construct of culture similar to the ones illustrated in the vignettes 'GBTP Airline' and 'GBTP Resources Company' in Chapter 6.

The resulting knowledge of the construct of culture and the culture types instantiated in a GBTP and the differences between those is envisaged as a valuable aid to practitioners to better understand the environment they operating in.

Process for Managing Culture: The processual model addresses the managerial interest in dealing with culture and the need to respond to issues resulting from the amalgamation of culture types in GBTPs. It provides an outline of how to deal with culture in GBTPs on an abstract conceptual level, rather than by prescribing detailed activities. It is however not a standard or cookbook approach, since GBTPs are unique endeavours (Grisham & Srinivasan, 2008, p. 272). This is analogous to cooking a recipe where the steps have to be followed, although the planning and execution of each step depends on the ingredients available, kitchen utensils available, and also the chef's skills and understanding of how to prepare a 'good' meal for the specific audience.

The processual model is deemed to guide practitioners through the stages of recognition, understanding and management enabled by the elements of enablement. The stages of recognition and understanding are thereby core, and as Ajmal and Koskinen observed: *"Managers who are aware of cultural differences can avoid or minimize unproductive conflicts and misunderstandings"* (2008, pp. 12,13). Its proactive and conscious application is conjectured to provide a substantial advantage over practices that are merely reactive to conditions as they occur, or a poor awareness of the situation.

8.2.3 Contributions to the Research Method

This study provides a well-documented research process for the conduct of qualitative grounded theory research from the research design [Chapter 2] over data generation [Chapter 3], data analysis and quality considerations to qualitative research [Chapter 4] to the interpretation and presentation of discoveries [Chapter 5, 6 & 7]. Interview research and the application of grounded theory data analysis are to be highlighted.

Interview Research: This study developed and used interview research as a strategy for data generation and as an alternative to case studies. Interview research is also an alternative for quantitative methodologies that are the dominant paradigm in organizational studies, which require both breath and depth of inquiry. The discussion on the interview research method in Chapter 3 demonstrated that it had similar breadth as quantitative methods alike experimental or survey research while exceeding the reach of case study and ethnographic research combined with the depth of qualitative enquiries. Moreover, interview research as proposed and used in this study readily supports theoretical sampling (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This analytical technique of grounded theory allows for the purposive generation of data in the right quantity and quality, and caters well to the inductive approach and allows the pursuit of theoretical interest. Its application in this study helped gain in-depth insights into thirty-two senior management practitioners' lived experience of working on sixty-one GBTPs between them, irrespective of geographic, industry and disciplinary boundaries and from multiple GBTPs and perspectives.

Grounded Theory: The application of the 'Glaserian' grounded theory *"produce[s] an [inductively formulated] theory of how a particular program functions in a real situation within a naturalistic mode of inquiry"* (Galal-Edeen, 2001, p. 6). This study provides a thoroughly detailed documentation of the different stages of coding and facilitates a transparent and traceable research process. This documentation in this research demonstrates how grounded theory can be leveraged in cross-cultural research with rich empirical grounding and is a potential foundation for future researchers engaging in studies with similar objectives. Moreover, it

illustrates the assessment of a grounded theory study drawn on published frameworks and vignettes provide insights to the data underlying the discovered theory.

In addition, vignettes allowed illustrating this thesis' contribution and its derived models. They link the derived conceptual models back to the data, drawing on the interviewees reported lived-experience in GBTPs illustrating its empirical grounding, providing insights and detail the models in practice.

The applied combination of interactive interview research and grounded theory is one answer to the call for novel approaches to generate insights beyond the traditional perspectives of theory and method (Sarker & Sahay, 2003) but also responds to the request for innovative, creative, and in-depth cross-cultural research (Hunter, 2001; Myers & Tan, 2002) that moves beyond the static view of culture to understanding the 'how' and the 'why' of culture (Jackson, 2011). In addition, the detailed documentation of the research approach is a prime example that the author's enthusiasm for doing cultural research did not neglect to pay attention on the design and methods applied in this study, which is not common (Tayeb, 1994). Their application is well document including the illustrated of criteria by which interviews and qualitative research are suggested to be judged.

This study supports these objectives of understanding the how and why of culture within the context of a GBTP. It did so through executing an in-depth, boundary-spanning research project across multiple layers of culture based upon the first-hand experiences of senior management practitioners.

The next sections discuss the implications to these contributions.

8.3 Goodness of Theory

Nothing is so practical as a good theory

-- Kurt Lewin (1945, p. 126)

This section is a retrospective review, which applies the characteristics of good theory set in Chapter 2 to the theory discovered in this study. It is to complement the

previous section on contributions and their implications in respect to the elements of theory and type of theory discovered.

The theory discovered in this study can be classified as a 'builder' theory using the taxonomy of Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan (2007) that is of a substantive nature (Glaser, 1992). The elements of good theory identified in Chapter 2 are construct, relationships, explanation and scope (Whetten, 1989) (Gregor, 2006). Each of these elements is applied to the completed research.

Construct: The key constructs discovered in this study are the eight categories: Culture types, cultural differences, cultural diversity, recognition, understanding, management, enablement and contextual variables. Table 8-1 provides an overview of these. A more detailed summary of the discovered categories and concepts including descriptions can be found in Chapter 4, Table 4-1.

Core Category	**Category**	***Concept***
Construct of Culture	Culture Types	*Project Culture*
		National Culture
		Organizational Culture
		Industry Culture
		Professional Service Firm Culture
		Theme' Culture
	Cultural Differences	
	Cultural Diversity	
Process for Managing Culture [Basic Social Process]	Recognition	
	Understanding	
	Management	
	Enablement	*Management Support*
		Communication
		Training
	Contextual Variables	*Geographically Dispersed Locations*
		Language
		Information Technology

Table 8-1: Summary Categories and Concepts

Each of these categories were elaborated on in greater detail in a dedicated section in Chapter 6 and 7.

Relationships: The key relationships between categories but also the concepts that integrated these and allowed for the formulation of the discovered theory are depicted in Table 8-2 below.

Category	Relationship
Culture Types	*lead to* cultural differences
	lead to cultural diversity
Cultural Differences	*lead to* cultural diversity
	identify culture types
Recognition	*allows* understanding
	understanding may *regressess back* to recognition
	management may *regressess back* to recognition
Understanding	*allows* management
	may *regresses back* to recognition
	management may *regressess back* to understanding
Management	may *regresses back* to understanding
	may *regresses back* to recognition
Enablement	*enables* recognition
	enables understanding
	enables management
Contextual Variables	*influence* the construct of culture
	inform the process for managing culture

Table 8-2: Summary Relationships between Categories

Both the constructs and the relationships are deemed to be stable, while their properties may change as continuing work yields further insights. The corresponding Chapters 5, 6 and 7 elaborate further on physically presenting the findings in words, tables and figures as suggested by Gregor (2006).

Scope: The scope of the substantive theory discovered is bound by the study's research scene of GBTP [Chapter 5] and the study's delimitations [Chapter 1]. This study's research scene is composed of the research context, GBTPs, and the perspective taken, which is one of senior management practitioners. The delimitations are the study's focus, which is to describe culture and deal with culture in the given research scene as well as in professional practice, both imposed by the research design and researcher. Nevertheless, it is expected to be generalisable, and therefore conjectures are made in the discussion of the derived models.

Explanation: The discovered theory is elaborated in detail in the dedicated chapters on the theoretical model of the construct of culture [Chapter 6] and the processual model of the process to manage culture [Chapter 7]. These include a detailed discussion, and tables and figures expected to make the constructs and

relationships more digestible for the interested reader. In addition vignettes provide illustration of the theory in the language of interviewees but also the theory's empirical grounding. Moreover, Chapter 6 as well as 7 concludes with a reflection on the discovered theory.

Specifically to grounded theory, the aspects of the degree of conceptualization [process] and theory scope [outcome] (Urquhart, et al., 2010) relate to the discovery of theory including the applied procedures of grounded theory[35].

Degree of Conceptualisation: The conceptualisation of theory in this study was achieved by the establishment of the relations between the discovered theoretical constructs through theoretical coding. Table 8-2 provided a summary of these relationships. The process to reach that degree of conceptualisation which progresses from description [open coding] to interpretation [selection coding] to theory [theoretical coding] is documented in Chapter 4.

Guidelines to progress the degree of conceptualisation are constant comparison, iterative conceptualisation and theoretical sampling (Urquhart, et al., 2010). Constant comparison was explicitly mentioned and demonstrated[36]. Iterative conceptualisation was achieved establishing relationships between the discovered categories through theoretical coding[37]. Also, theoretical sampling was explicitly mentioned and carried out as well as data generation and data analysis was overlapping[38].

Theory Scope: The discovered theory is of strong empirical grounding and has substantive focus. It is applicable to the domain of investigation though conjectures for generalizability are made. Also it is envisaged that the discovered theory will be the baseline for a future formal theory.

Guidelines to progress the theory scope are scaling up and theoretical integration (Urquhart, et al., 2010). Scaling up was achieved through using a core category and a basic social process and the abstraction of time, people and place that were related to each category and contained several concepts. It was achieved

[35] A definition and specification of the aspects degree of conceptualization and theory scope is provided in Chapter 2, section 2.4.2 Assessment of Theory.
[36] See Chapter 4, section 4.2.2 Constant Comparative Analysis
[37] See Chapter 4, section 4.2.3.3 Theoretical Coding
[38] See Chapter 3, section 3.3.3 Theoretical Sampling

through selective coding[39]. Theoretical integration was attempted where the author discussed each category in the light of extant literature but did not formalise the discovered theory[40]. Theoretical integration towards a formal theory was not scope of this study and is subject to future research.

The next section details the limitations of this study.

8.4 Limitations

Any research requires decisions to be taken, and these may compromise paths of interest or investigation. I say not, 'I have found the truth,' but rather, 'I have found a truth.' [Kahlil Gibran, Lebanese Artist & Poet, 1883-1931]. The theoretical models presented in this study present a truth, rather than the truth. Similarly, the way of how the findings were derived represents one path of many, but was faithfully selected as the most appropriate. Hence, the summary of limitations to this study should be seen as inspiration for future work through lessons learned, both positive and negative.

Limitations to this study are related to the data sample, interview research, the strategy for data generation, the research method, and enfolding of extant literature, time and resources, and the researcher's choices. In contrast to the delimitations of this study [Chapter 1] limitations were not known prior to engaging in the study and thus not planned for.

Data Sample: First, the sample of interviewees participating in this study cannot be classified as statistically representative, nor is this required for explorative qualitative research. On the other hand, for doctoral research using grounded theory, the sample size is seen as considerably large and the data generation was extensive and rich in terms of data analysis. Second, a western perspective dominated the data sample with the majority of interviewees coming from a western background and the

[39] See Chapter 4, section 4.2.3.2 Selective Coding
[40] See Chapter 4, section 4.3 The Role of Literature in Grounded Theory for how to achieve theoretical integration and Chapter 5, 6 and 7 how extant literature was interwoven in the discovered theory

GBTPs they reported on were mainly situated, or headquartered and driven in the western context. This is confirmed by the literature as the majority of theories of management have a western and generally an American perspective (Robbins, 2004). Nevertheless, the researcher conjectures that although overarching results might be the same. Also is noted that GBTPs based in or headed by people from African, South American and Middle Eastern were not discovered as being substantially different.

Interview Research: The interview as primary mode of data generation in this study is a co-construction of meaning between the interviewee and the interviewer, thus there is always the risk that the interview does not lead to the expected outcome. Another limitation to interviewing is the interview only captures a fraction of the lived experience. In an ideal situation, the data generation would have included extensive and intensive participant observation such as ethnography (Van Maanen, 1979). This was not feasible in this study. However, the was data generated from conversations with multiple individuals with significant experience of working in GBTPs, and holding senior roles in the organisations or professional service firms and hence mitigates this limitation. Also findings derived from the data were consistent and facilitated the design of the theoretical models.

Research Method: Any research method has its benefits as well as weaknesses. Grounded theory both stimulates and disciplines the researcher's theoretical imagination but does not guarantee truth of the resultant theory (Pidgeon & Henwood, 1997). The quality of work though was ensured by following the procedures of the 'Glaserian' grounded theory outlined by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Glaser (1978, 1992) but also by following the suggested guidelines for qualitative interpretive research (Walsham, 1995; Klein & Myers, 1999; Myers, 2009) and grounded theory (Urquhart, et al., 2010) [Chapter 4].

Enfolding of Extant Literature: The theoretical sampling and enfolding of literature could have continued forever as there is always a new aspect to be considered or looked at. Besides, given the cross-disciplinary nature of this study and the broad scope of the theme 'culture' not all lines of inquiry across various fields could be practically accommodated; only the core categories underlying the concepts

were saturated in a practical way. This applies also to the vignettes presented which provide only an illustration of the discovered theory in the language of interviewees.

Time and Resources: Doctoral research, just as any research project, is constrained by time, resources, as well as deadlines to meet, which require the researcher to take decisions that may be considered as closing off avenues of research. Hence this study only provides a flavour of how culture can be conceptualized and dealt with, and does not attempt to provide an exhaustive interpretation. However, these avenues have been cleared for future research with this study forming a foundation for the same.

Researcher: Next to the above, the researcher himself was a limitation to this study since he engaged as a novice to research and had to learn how to conduct research. At the same time, his motivation and professional experience in the field of investigation influenced his desire to do research that is not only rigorous but also relevant to practice. This experience positively influenced his interaction with interviewees during the interview allowing for a lively conversation but also continuous engagement with practice.

In summary, the above limitations are not thought to have negatively impacted the discovered theory as the research approach was robust, and well documented and executed, with empirical grounding, and the data generated was of high quality. This explorative study to discover theory is rather the start rather than the end of this research. As highlighted at the outline of this section the identified limitations to this study are seen as inspiration for future work, which is outlined in the following section.

8.5 Future Work

> *This* [study] *has only listed some of the items on a menu and put some of the items together in some simple dishes; it remains for others to broaden the menu and produce the cordon bleu meals.*
>
> -- Andrew M. Pettigrew (1979, p. 580)

This study resulted in a theoretical model of the construct of culture and a processual model of the process to manage culture in GBTPs. This study made significant contributions to theory, practice and research, and surfaced multiple aspects identified to be worthy of further investigations. As these were not feasible to be addressed in the course of this study, this section outlines them as avenues for future work. The following highlights the most promising of these, which are formalising and validating the discovered theory.

Formalising Theory: This transformation of discovered theory to formal theory requires continuous field research with a carefully selected sample beyond the area of investigation and interweaving of extant literature (Carlile & Christensen, 2005) both to maximise the differences and similarities in analysis.

Validating Theory: In order validate and test the discovered theory, future work may engage in the conduct of a multiple case study approach which would be appropriate to test the derived theory. This could be located within projects such as IT enabled GBTPs or organisational reorganisations or even the investigation of culture in different phases of a GBTP. Other alternatives would include action research or focus groups. Also an integration of qualitative and quantitative approaches would be suitable to validate the discovered theory (Reiter, Stewart, & Bruce, 2010).

The two sub-sections in the following section; the first outlines areas for future work, followed by detailing an approach of how to address these.

8.5.1 Avenues for Future Work

Future work in respect to the theory discovered from this study may include the following activities.

Construct of Culture: Future work in respect to the theoretical model of the construct of culture in an organisational setting may explore the presence of other culture types not mentioned in the context of this study. These may include subcultures present in any culture type but particularly organisational subcultures and also group culture (Karahanna, et al., 2005), occupational culture (Gregory, 1983), professional culture (Schein, 1996; Wang, 2001; Karahanna, et al., 2005) or individual culture (Karahanna, et al., 2005) which are all reported in the literature. In terms of cultural differences, a typology is to be developed, while the typology of cultural diversity is to be formalised and extended beyond the context of GBTPs.

Also, future work may explore patters of values and practices of cultures (Karahanna, et al., 2005), culture types discovered, and their implications. This is expected to lead to some conjectures of how to understand and deal with culture.

Process to Manage Culture: Work to extend the processual model of the process to manage culture can further investigate in the encounters and episodes of each of the stages in the tradition of the work by Newman and Robey (1992) (1996). This includes also the triggering mechanism facilitating the transition from one stage to another (Gersick, 1988; Monge, 1990). These may concentrate on specific contexts such as problem-solving or decision-making processes. In addition, the conditions to nurture the elements of enablement are to be further explored. For example, communication was identified as an enabler but poor communication manners or skill are a constraint to GBTP. The work of Luftman et al. (1999) showed similar effect on enablers and inhibitors on Business-IT-Alignment, and recently, Anantatmula and Thomas (2010) identified twelve factors influencing the management performance of global projects.

Contextual Variables: Another stream of continuing research may first further explore contextual variables to GBTPs discovered in this study. Second, these may also be examined with a view of them being enablers or inhibitors as suggested in the elements of enablement. Third these variable could be added to existing frameworks

such as the model for information systems research which suggest an external, organisational and information systems environment (Ives, et al., 1980) or a framework for global IS research resulting from the work of Ein-Dor and colleagues (1993).

Integration: In addition to continuing research focusing on formalizing the construct of culture as well as process to mange culture, future research may further integrate these theoretical constructs, which is attempted in the integration of the models based on the properties of the categories of recognition, understanding and management.

Theoretical Lens: Research building on the derived models may apply a theoretical lens such as *affordance theory*, *structuration theory*, or *situating culture approach* according to which culture is fluid, context dependent and created by actors within a group that may hold different assumptions (Walsham, 2002). Research beyond the theory discovered in this study may aim to identify capabilities that enable the process to manage culture, derive a formal model to assess the construct of culture but also the progression towards the management of culture similar to maturity models (Rosemann, De Bruin, & Power, 2006; Hammer, 2007).

Practice: In regard to practice, continuing work could develop a situational assessment instrument which can allow for an instant assessment of the GBTPs or the organisation's construct of culture and contextual variables in place. Future work can also expand the processual model by outlining activities that show how culture can be managed in GBTP by providing more specific guidelines and illustrating these with more vignettes on which practitioners may draw upon.

Future work to the research method is to advance the applied strategy of data generation interview research and a research design for continuing research.

Research Design: This study used a qualitative approach but future research in this domain could integrate qualitative and quantitative approaches in cross-cultural research (Reiter, Stewart, & Bruce, 2010), with quantitative work that follows the qualitative and verifies and justifies qualitative work. The quantitative conceptualisations alone cannot lead to grounded theory, while a qualitative research

approach can (Pearse & Kanyangale, 2009), and hence the combination only makes the findings more valid.

8.5.2 Approach to Future Work

One way to validate the substantive theory derived in this study is the structurational analysis and the situated culture approach[41] as suggested by Ali and Brooks (Ali & Brooks, 2009), drawing on structuration theory (Giddens, 1984), structurational analysis in cross-cultural research (Walsham, 2002), (Ali & Brooks, 2009) and situated culture approach (Weisinger & Trauth, 2002) (Weisinger & Trauth, 2003), (Ali & Brooks, 2009). Structurational analysis and the situated culture approach take the position that dealing with culture in GBTPs involves the 'management of the GBTP' and the 'management of the culture context' (Weisinger & Trauth, 2003).

Situating Culture: The theoretical framework of situating culture adds to the understanding of implicit aspects of cross-cultural management (Weisinger & Trauth, 2003), particularly the local culture and behaviours of people in a cross-cultural environment (Weisinger & Salipante, 2000). Implicit aspects refer to the construct of culture, typology of culture types and more precisely the culture types present in a GBTP. These are the subtle and less visible aspects of culture, such as the unstated assumptions, values and norms that define the culture types, but may differ per culture type as well as management practices.

Two concepts fundamental to situated culture are context and culture; these come together as 'cultural knowing' (Weisinger & Salipante, 2000). Context refers to the structure and environment where social interaction occurs (Giddens, 1984), which is the GBTPs in this study. Culture on the other hand, refers to the meanings ascribed to context (Weisinger & Salipante, 2000). Dube and Robey (1999) highlight in that culture, independent of the level, is influenced by the context it is situated in.

[41] Examiner two of this thesis suggested the inclusion of structurational analysis Walsham, G. (2002). Cross-Cultural Software Production and Use: A Structurational Analysis. *MIS Quarterly, 26*(4), 359-380. and the situated culture approach Weisinger, J. Y., & Trauth, E. M. (2003). The Importance of Situating Culture in Cross-cultural IT Management. *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management, 50*(1), 26-30. Ali, M., & Brooks, L. (2009). A Situated Cultural Approach for Cross-cultural Studies in IS. *Journal of Enterprise Information Management, 22*(5), 548-563..

Cultural knowing embedded in practice refers to knowledgeability, taking on Giddens (1984) view culture being a socially enacted dynamic process.

The theoretical perspective of situated culture implies that the understanding of culture is locally situated, behavioural, embedded in practices, and negotiated in its context (Weisinger & Salipante, 2000), GBTPs. In other words, senior management practitioners think in terms of behaviours rather than cultural assumptions. Situating culture in dealing with culture in GBTPs implies that senior management practitioners need to understand the culture in GBTPs as well as at the GBTPs itself. In other words, the GBTP and context elements -explicit- [Chapter 5] and the construct of culture -implicit- [Chapter 6], both describe the GBPT's scene.

Moreover, the situated culture approach accommodates the dynamic nature of culture, allowing for movement, or reshaping of culture over time; it takes contextual elements into account as well as it is to explore behaviour and practices as indications for local cultures more deeply (Weisinger & Salipante, 2000). Thus, it would be appropriate for validating the discovered substantive theory as:

- Culture, the project culture is seen as negotiated space, composed by all involved parties (Weisinger & Trauth, 2003). Further, it is understood as dynamic and thus evolve, change and adapt as the GBTP progresses, new insights are gained, leanings are made (Weisinger & Trauth, 2003) or cultures imported into.
- Managers, and senior management practitioners think in behaviours rather than cultural assumptions (Weisinger & Trauth, 2003)
- Cultural understanding is locally situated and fixed in the work practices in place (Weisinger & Trauth, 2003).

The application of the theoretical framework of situating culture in the continuance of this study may re-examine examples senior management practitioners reported on, how they dealt with culture in GBTPs influenced by multiple contexts and the culture types present in the GBTP's project culture. It may assist to better delineate and thus understand the intersection of culture, implicit cultural aspects and the GBTP (Weisinger & Trauth, 2003) - how the culture types present play and contextual elements play out in specific situations when dealing with culture.

In a concrete case of a specific GBTP, the situated culture may allow for better understanding and delineation of the unique project culture, which is the emergent

result of the combination of culture types present and contextual elements, which may influence the dealing with culture that GBTP. Operationalised in this study, each vignette reported or case for future research may portray the situated nature of dealing with culture in a GBTP. These illustrate key issues senior management practitioners are to consider when working in culturally diverse contexts. An example of such work is situating culture in the cross-cultural IT workplace by Weisinger and Trauth (2003).

Another avenue of investigation in the line of situating culture is to explore the role of practitioners' cross-cultural experience in respect to cultural knowing in a situated culture. The experience of senior management practitioners is conjectured to enable the dealing with culture in GBTP, though needs to be further investigated However, this underlies that cultural knowing resides in action rather than being separate from action (Weisinger & Salipante, 2000). Caution is to be taken since knowledgability is temporal and local (Giddens, 1984). Overall cultural knowing may being a key separator between the GBTPs which fail and those which deliver is posed as important to practice since missing cultural knowing in a specific situation becomes present in failing to deal with culture appropriately.

Structurational Analysis: Giddens (1984) proposed the notion of structure as the set of enacted rules and resources that mediate social action through three dimensions or modalities: facilities, norms and interpretive schemes. He further noted that in any structurational analysis, some structures must be foregrounded and others are to be put in the background. In other words some structures enacted will not be central in the study. Structurational analysis allows addressing both questions of structurational contradiction and conflict; examining the heterogeneous systems of meaning, power relations, and norms of different social groupings within culture types present; and discovering differences on a work-related level within particular situations and how these affect particular work patterns and behavior (Walsham, 2002). For cross-cultural research, structurational analysis *"can be used to analyze cross-cultural conflict and contradiction, cultural heterogeneity, detailed work patterns, and the dynamic nature of culture"* (Walsham, 2002, p. 359). Also, structurational analysis has the capacity to use other theories in tandem rather than excluding them (Walsham, 2002).

In the context of this study, the enactment of structures for validating theory frames how to deal with culture as a process and enables a deeper understanding of culture practices in GBTPs. Similarly, Orlikowski (2000) proposed a practice lens to extend the structurational perspective on technology to examine how people in their ongoing practice of interacting with technology, and enact structures that shape their situated use of that technology. Structurational analysis starts with actions by senior management practitioners involved in GBTPs and examines how emergent structures are enacted through acts such as recurring interaction with different cultures, which is different to starting with culture and examining how people appropriate embedded structures. Senior management practitioners thereby draw on their knowledge and experience when dealing with culture to structure their action, rather than enact structures in a vacuum. Orlikowski (2000) called this technologies-in-practice, which consists of sets of rules and resources that are constituted in people's recurrent engagement in dealing with technology. Also, structurational analysis accommodates the dynamic view of culture as no assumptions in respect to stability, predictability and completeness of culture are taken. According to Ali and Brooks (2009) using structuration theory would provide in-depth analysis of cultural aspects preventing the researcher to assume cultural differences, predefined cultural arch-types prior to the investigation. An example of such work is the structurational analysis of cross-cultural software production and use by Walsham (2002).

While Structurational analysis could be used to analyse any case in the cross-cultural space (Ali & Brooks, 2009), it is to be noted that the implicit aspects reflected in practices may or may not carry over successfully to a different cultural context in different GBTPs. Similarly, Orlikowski states *"people, as they interact with a technology in their ongoing practices, enact structures which shape their emergent and situated use of that technology"* (Orlikowski, 2000, p. 404). Also, structurational analysis attends to calls for adopting a dynamic view of culture (Myers & Tan, 2002).

For future research either one or the combination of both – situating culture and structurational analysis – may offer great insights to the construct of culture GBTPs and how to deal with culture in such. Situating culture takes on the cultural knowing, which requires knowledgability of the 'local' culture in place as well as the local project culture in place [for the purposes of this study]. Knowledgability is

local and temporal (Giddens, 1984), and resides within action (Weisinger & Salipante, 2000). These elements are also the product of the recognition and understanding stages of the processual model for managing culture. The action component is the stage management, which leads to the actual dealing with culture. Structurational analysis, on the other hand, provides a framework to analyse, or re-analyse data accommodating the link between structural contradiction and conflict, cultural heterogeneity and detailed work patters with the dynamic nature of culture (Walsham, 2002). Re-analysis of the data generated in this study are one avenue to look at for future research. Walsham (2002) and Weisinger and Trauth (2003), both reassess the findings they reported in earlier studies through structural analysis and situating culture.

The above outlines pathways to formalise and validate the discovered theory in future research by applying one or combining both, structurational analysis and the situated culture approach.

The suggested pathways to validate this study's findings were not considered as suitable at the outset of this study, as objective of this study was to discover theory addressing the abstract wonderment of: What constitutes the construct of culture in GBTPs? and how to deal with culture in GBTPs? It was to explore culture in GBTPs and answer these questions relying on the data generated without being biased by a theoretical framework or predefined approach, which would distract or force data in predefined patters rather allowing their emergence (Glaser, 1992). Structurational analysis and the situated culture approach or a combination of both would not have allowed for this emergence. Instead data would have been forced into categories, and the approach / framework biased the researcher. Walsham even states this in the abstract of his paper on structurational analysis "a theoretical bias for analysis is developed" (Walsham, 2002, p. 359). Moreover, this study was to look at culture from a holistic perspective rather than doing cross-cultural research focusing on national culture.

In summary, this exploratory study provides just a fraction of knowledge and suggests a myriad of opportunities and streams for future work. This may include formalising and or validating the discovered theory, advancing the discovered core

categories, categories and concepts as well as documenting the research procedures for future study.

The next and last section of this study is its conclusion.

8.6 Conclusion

This section marks the end of a study set to discover theory in the data generated through interviews by following the procedures of the 'Glaserian' grounded theory used to address the abstract wonderment of:

- What constitutes the construct of culture in GBTPs?
- How to deal with culture in GBTPs?

This study made significant contributions through its theoretical model of the construct of culture and in its identification of new culture types impacting on the project culture of a GBTP. The processual model of the process to manage culture is a practitioners view as well as the basic social process, which is core to the issue of how to deal with culture. Both of these theories are grounded in empirical data and have been shown to have implications to both theory and practice. Moreover, this chapter discussed its implications as well as limitations before outlining future research directions.

For the practitioner community, the findings derived from this study provide insights to be considered when engaging in GBTP but also when working in a culturally diverse environment. The theory discovered and formulated in models is conjectured to be applicable to all contemporary organisations and the practitioners' familiarity with it may accelerate their ability of dealing with culture. The importance of this study is best highlighted by asking 'What happens if culture is not understood and cannot be dealt with?' rather than 'What happens if culture is understood and we know how to deal with culture?' It depends also on the researchers' or practitioners' engagement with the study's findings. An analogy is that *"in some sense, every reader 'finishes' every book according to his or her experiences*, *needs*, *beliefs and potential. That is the way you can really own a book. Buying books is easy; owning them is not"* (De Pree, 1989, p. 3). This study may be

stored as hard-copy in a shelf as soft-copy in a folder, and a few people may engage with the work or build up on it but only a very few will own it intellectually and thus will be able to fully utilise it.

Personally this research was a long and at times lonely journey much different than I would have imagined at its outset, similar to the theory discovered in the data. It was spiked with challenges but also glitter of which I have learnt much about research and also life.

Now, I really look forward to applying this study's findings in practice and start with the 'real' research after all the training, but first spending time with my daughter Seana who was born during this research project - 'Seana let's go to the playground'.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Interview Protocol

Interview Introduction

Cultural aspects are becoming more and more crucial for organisations and in management practices as they are dedicated to enable and sustain corporate success. This applies particularly to global business transformation projects that span across countries and involve individuals of different cultural backgrounds.

The aim of this study is to investigate the role of culture in Global Business Transformation Projects [GBTPs]. This interview in particular aims to get an in-depth understanding of how culture is understood and dealt within such projects.

The interview may take between 60 and 90 minutes and will be audio-recorded with your consent.

Guiding Interview questions

Background Interviewee

- What is your professional background?
- What are your key areas of expertise?
- In how many countries have you lived in for longer than one year?
- How many of these were for work?
- Which of these countries has shaped your professional worldview and how?

Experience Interviewee

- What kind of projects are you usually involved in?
- Please tell me about the GBTPs you have been involved in or managed so far? [2 to 4]
    - In which industry was the GBTPs situated?
    - What was the GBTP's scope?

- How was the GBTP organized?
- How long was the GBTP going?
- Where was GBTP located, and where was it headquartered?
- Which countries were involved?
- Were external parties such as service providers or professional service firms involved? If yes, what was their role?
- What was your involvement, responsibility and position?
- Have you been an employee of the hosting organisation or where you engaged as an external party e.g. as part of a professional service firm?
- What was your impression of culture in this GBTP?

Contextual Variables

- Based on your experience, what aspects influence GBTPs?
- Based on your experience, what is the biggest obstacle to GBTPs?
- Based on your experience, what is the biggest enabler to GBTPs?
- What are the key aspects when initiating a GBTP?

Role of Culture, Construct of Culture in GBTPs

- How did you recognise culture when working on GBTPs?
- What aspects of culture did you recognise when working on GBTPs?
- Multi-national organizations like GBTPs are typically culturally diverse. Please describe a situation in which you experienced such diversity?
  - What aspects of cultural diversity did you experience?
- Some organisations are well known for their focus on culture, or cultures they have established. Have you worked in such and environment?
  - If, yes how did this affect the GBTP?
- What impact does culture have on GBTPs?
  - Which elements did you notice?
  - How does organisational culture affect GBTPs?
  - How does national culture affect GBTPs?

- What impact does a GBTP have on the organisation's culture?
    - Which specific elements did you notice?
- How did you experience cultural diversity in GBTPs?
- How did you experience cultural differences in GBTPs?
- What do you think is the role of culture in GBTPs?

Dealing with Culture, Cultural Diversity in GBTPs

- How did you deal with culture while working in a culturally diverse environment?
- Please describe at least two examples of how culture was taken into account in your work on GBTPs?
- Did you also consider _____ ? [Discovered concepts]
    - If, not why has culture not been taken into account?
- How did you deal with cultural diversity?
    - If yes, on what level? [Region, country; organisations, global vs. local; individual; involved parties]
    - If not, how could cultural diversity be considered?
- What did you do differently when working in a culturally diverse environment compared to working in a culturally homogenous environment?
- Could you elaborate on your experiences when working with a cultural diverse team?

Discovered Concepts, Categories and Relationships

- What role does language play in GBTPs?
- What role does information technology play in GBTPs?
- What role does the industry a GBTP is situated in play?
- What role does training play?
- What role does management support play?
- What role does communication play?
- Can you further elaborate on _____ ? [Discoveries made during the interview]

Reflection on Experiences and Learning's

- Please summarise your experience working in a culturally diverse environment
- Looking back at your first experiences working on a GBTP or a country not your own and in a cultural diverse environment, what do you still have in mind?
- What were your pitfalls, lessons learnt?
- If you were to manage a new project what would you do?
- What tools, methods, practices would you put in place?
- What would you strictly avoid?
- What advice would you give to a new colleague working on their first project in a cultural diverse environment?
- Looking 5 to 10 years into the future, what do you think will be the role of culture?

Closure

- Is there anything more you would like to add?
- Do you have any questions?

Note: Interviewees were always asked if they could illustrate their response with an example.

Appendix B: Empirical Grounding

Demographic Overview Interviewees

The following table provides demographic information on the thirty-two participating senior management practitioners.

#	ID	Industry	Position	Region	Countries worked in [> 1 year]	Professional experience	Age	Gender	Education	Languages [Converse]
1	PSF-01	Professional Service Firm	Partner	Europe	China, Germany	13	30 < 40	male	Master	English, German
2	PSF-02	Professional Service Firm	Senior Manager	Europe	Germany	13	30 < 40	male	Master	English, German
3	PSF-03	Professional Service Firm	Senior Manager	North America	Germany, US, Egypt, Saudi Arabia	12	40 < 50	male	Master	German, English, Egyptian Arabic
4	PSF-04	Professional Service Firm	Senior Manager	Europe	Austria, Germany	13	30 < 40	male	Master	English, French, German, Hungarian
5	PSF-05	Professional Service Firm	Partner	Europe	Germany, US	17	40 < 50	male	Master	English, French, German
6	GM-01	Renewable Energies	Manager	Europe	Brazil, Germany	3	30 < 40	male	Master	English, French, German, Spanish, Turkish
7	PSF-06	Professional Service Firm	Director	Europe	Germany	12	30 < 40	male	PhD	English, French, German
8	PSF-07	Professional Service Firm	Senior Manager	Europe	Germany, UK	15	40 < 50	male	PhD	English, German
9	PSF-08	Professional Service Firm	Senior Consultant	Europe	Bosnia, China, Germany	5	30 < 40	female	Master	Bosnian, French, German, Mandarin
10	GM-02	Renewable Energies	Manager	Europe	Brazil, Germany	6	< 30	male	Master	English, German, Portuguese, Spanish
11	GM-03	Automotive	Manager Logistics	Europe	Germany, South Africa	14	30 < 40	female	Master	English, German
12	GM-04	Automotive	Manager Engine Plant	Asia	Germany, Malaysia, Thailand, Indonesia	30	> 50	male	Bachelor	English, German
13	GM-05	Conglomerate	Head of Consulting	Asia	Germany, Swiss, Malaysia, Russia	16	40 < 50	male	Master	English, German, Italian, Russian
14	PSF-09	Professional Service Firm	Senior Manager	Australia	Australia	30	40 < 50	male	Master	English
15	GM-06	Aviation	Head of Customer Service	Australia	Australia, El Salvador, Germany, Kuwait, Spain, Venezuela	7	30 < 40	male	MBA	Bulgarian, English, German, Spanish,
16	GM-07	Aviation	Manager	Australia	Australia, South Africa, UK, Zimbabwe	26	40 < 50	male	Master	Afrikaans, English, French, Zulu
17	PSF-10	Professional Service Firm	Manager	Europe	Australia, Germany	12	30 < 40	male	PhD	English, German

#	ID	Industry	Position	Region	Countries worked in [> 1 year]	Professional experience	Age	Gender	Education	Languages [Converse]
18	GM-08	Consumer Goods	Manager	South America	Columbia, El Salvador, Sweden	12	30 < 40	male	MBA	Danish, English, Spanish, Swedish
19	GM-09	Pharmaceuticals	Manager	Australia	Australia, Singapore, UK	19	30 < 40	female	Master	English
20	PSF-11	Professional Service Firm	Managing Director	North America	Canada, US	38	> 50	male	MBA	English, French, Hungarian
21	PSF-12	Professional Service Firm	Manager	Middle East	Czech Republic, Emirates (Dubai), El Salvador, Spain, UK,	7	30 < 40	male	MBA	Czech, English, French, Portuguese, Russian, Slavic, Spanish
22	PSF-13	Professional Service Firm	President	North America	Canada, UK	35	> 50	male	Bachelor	English, French
23	PSF-14	Professional Service Firm	Executive Director	Africa	Singapore, South Africa	10	30 < 40	female	Bachelor	Afrikaans, English
24	GM-10	Automotive	Director	Europe	Germany, Malaysia, South Africa, US	18	30 < 40	male	Bachelor	English, German
25	PSF-15	Professional Service Firm	Executive Director	North America	France, Germany, Japan, US	19	40 < 50	male	PhD	English, German, French
26	PSF-16	Professional Service Firm	Executive Director	Asia	Malaysia, Philippines	15	40 < 50	female	PhD	Bhasa Malay, Chinese [Cantonese], English
27	GM-11	Resources	Program Director	Asia	Australia, Singapore, South Africa	19	40 < 50	male	Master	English
28	GM-12	Resources	Project Manager	Asia	Netherlands, United States, Germany Singapore	20	40 < 50	male	Bachelor	Dutch, English, German
29	PSF-17	Professional Service Firm	Executive Director	Asia	Malaysia, UK	13	30 < 40	male	Master	Bhasa Malay, Chinese [Cantonese], English
30	GM-13	Conglomerate	Chief Sustainable Officer	Asia	Malaysia, UK, US	20	40 < 50	male	MBA	Bhasa Malay, English
31	GM-14	Consumer Goods	Manager	North America	US	21	40 < 50	male	MBA	English, Spanish
32	GM-15	Consumer Goods	Manager	Africa	Germany, South Africa	11	30 < 40	male	Master	Afrikaans, English, German, Xhosa

Overview of Global Business Transformation Projects reported on by Interviewees

The following table provides an overview of the sixty-one GBTPs senior management practitioners who participated in the study reported on.

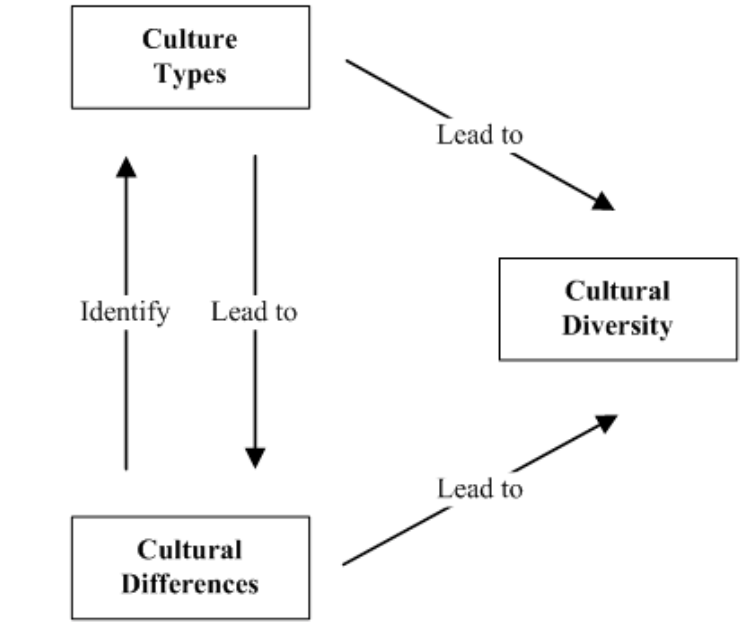
#	GBTP	Scope	Diversity Type	Role of IT	Region [HQ]	Interviewee
1	GBTP Automotive 1	Joint Engineering & Development Project of two Automotive Companies	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-06]
2	GBTP Automotive 2	Harmonization of Logistic Processes	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-06]
3	GBTP Automotive 3	Post-merger Integration	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-06]
4	GBTP Automotive 4	Reengineering of Service and Aftersales	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-06]
5	GBTP Automotive 5	Quality Management	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[GM-10]
6	GBTP Automotive 6	Production Management	Global by Nation	IS Support	Africa	[GM-10]
7	GBTP Automotive 7	Production Relocation	Global by Nation	IS Support	Asia	[GM-01], [GM-10]
8	GBTP Automotive 8	Process Reengineering	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-06]
9	GBTP Aviation 1	Business Process Management	Truly Global	IS Support	Australia	[GM-07]
10	GBTP Aviation 2	Set-up of a 'new' Subsidiary	Truly Global	IS Support	Australia	[GM-06]
11	GBTP Aviation 3	Reorganization	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Middle East	[GM-06]
12	GBTP Aviation 4	Reorganization	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Europe	[GM-08]
13	GBTP Aviation 5	Process Improvement & Reorganization	Truly Global	IS Support	Latin America	[GM-06], [GM-08], [PSF-13]
14	GBTP Chemicals 1	Supply Chain Process Improvement	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[PSF-11]
15	GBTP Chemicals 2	Business Transformation - Supply Chain	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[PSF-04]
16	GBTP Chemicals 3	Business Process Management	Truly Global	Pre IS Implementation	Middle East	[PSF-06], [PSF-07]
17	GBTP Conglomerate 1	Process Management	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-04]
18	GBTP Consumer 1	Organizational Transformation towards Process Orientation	Global by Involvement	Pre IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-06], [PSF-07]
19	GBTP Consumer 2	BPM Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	North America	[GM-14]
20	GBTP Consumer 3	Global Process Innovation	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[GM-14]
21	GBTP Consumer 4	Global Business Transformation and Process Standardization	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-04], [PSF-05]
22	GBTP Consumer 5	Process Improvement	Truly Global	IS Implementation	North America	[PSF-13]
23	GBTP Consumer 6	Process Management	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[PSF-15]
24	GBTP Consumer 7	Process Management & ERP System Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Asia	[PSF-01]
25	GBTP Consumer 8	Global ERP System Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Latin America	[GM-08], [PSF-14]
26	GBTP Consumer 9	Post-acquisition Integration	Truly Global	IS Support	Latin America	[GM-08]
27	GBTP Electronics 1	Process Management	Truly Global	Pre IS Implementation	Asia	[PSF-06]

#	GBTP	Scope	Diversity Type	Role of IT	Region [HQ]	Interviewee
28	GBTP Electronics 2	IT Infrastructure Management	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-10]
29	GBTP Electronics 3	Global IT Restructuring	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-02]
30	GBTP Electronics 4	Process Management for Research and Development	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-02]
31	GBTP Energy 1	Engineering and Sourcing Initiative	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[GM-01]
32	GBTP Engineering 1	Process Improvement	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-15]
33	GBTP Engineering 2	Business Transformation & Process Improvement	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[PSF-15]
34	GBTP Engineering 3	Construction and Set-up of an [..] Plant	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Asia	[GM-13]
35	GBTP Financial Services 1	BPM Implementation & Process Improvement	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-07]
36	GBTP Financial Services 2	BPM Implementation	Truly Global	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-04]
37	GBTP Financial Services 3	Global ERP Systems Implementation & Set-up of BPM Governance	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-04], [PSF-13]
38	GBTP Financial Services 4	Organizational Transformation towards Process Orientation	Truly Global	Pre IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-06], [PSF-07]
39	GBTP Financial Services 5	Turnaround & Rescue Management	Global by Involvement	Pre IS Implementation	Africa	[PSF-12]
40	GBTP Financial Services 6	Global Business Transformation	Truly Global	Pre IS Implementation	Asia	[PSF-04]
41	GBTP Financial Services 7	Business Transformation & Process Improvement	Global by Involvement	Pre IS Implementation	Middle East	[PSF-04]
42	GBTP Government 1	Process Improvement	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-13]
43	GBTP Government 2	E-Government Strategy	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Africa	[GM-13]
44	GBTP Government 3	Enterprise Architecture & Business Process Management	Global by Involvement	IS Implementation	North America	[PSF-05]
45	GBTP Oil & Gas 1	Process Management	Truly Global	Pre IS Implementation	Asia	[PSF-01]
46	GBTP Oil & Gas 2	Global ERP System Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Africa	[PSF-05]
47	GBTP Pharma 1	Global ERP System Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Australia	[GM-09]
48	GBTP Pharma 2	Global IT Strategy	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-17]
49	GBTP Pharma 3	Global Enterprise Process Definition	Truly Global	IS Support	North America	[PSF-11]
50	GBTP Resources 1	Global Business Transformation & ERP Systems Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Asia	[PSF-03], [PSF-05], [PSF-14], [GM-11], [GM-12]
51	GBTP Resources 2	Change & Process Improvement Initiative	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Australia	[PSF-09]

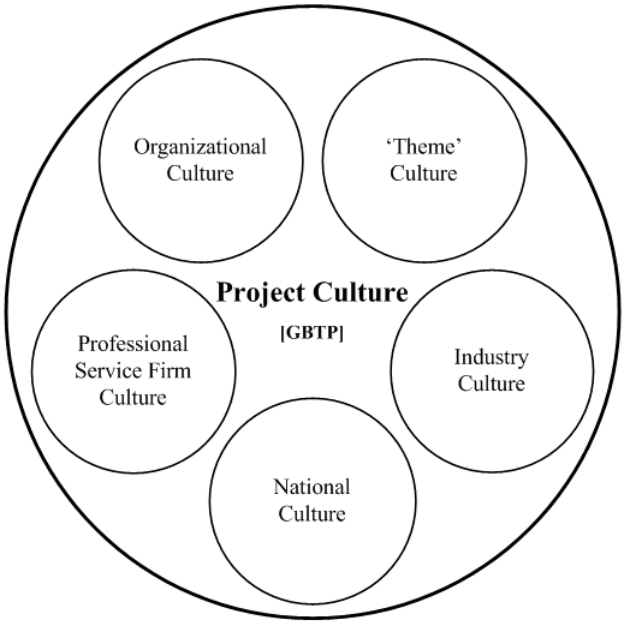
#	GBTP	Scope	Diversity Type	Role of IT	Region [HQ]	Interviewee
52	GBTP Resources 3	Change Management Program	Truly Global	IS Support	Australia	[GM-11]
53	GBTP Resources 4	Global ERP System Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	North America	[PSF-01]
54	GBTP Resources 5	ERP System Implementation	Global by Involvement	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-01]
55	GBTP Resources 6	Global ERP System Implementation	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Asia	[PSF-01]
56	GBTP Telecommunication 1	ERP System Implementation	Global by Nation	IS Implementation	Africa	[PSF-14]
57	GBTP Telecommunication 2	Global ERP System Implementation & Process Improvement	Truly Global	IS Implementation	Europe	[PSF-08]
58	GBTP Telecommunication 3	Alliance Strategy Development	Truly Global	IS Support	Middle East	[PSF-12]
59	GBTP Telecommunication 4	Turnaround Management	Global by Nation	IS Support	Africa	[PSF-12]
60	GBTP Telecommunication 5	Integration	Truly Global	IS Support	Asia	[PSF-17]
61	GBTP Transportation 1	Process Improvement	Global by Involvement	IS Support	Europe	[PSF-13]

Appendix C: Contributions

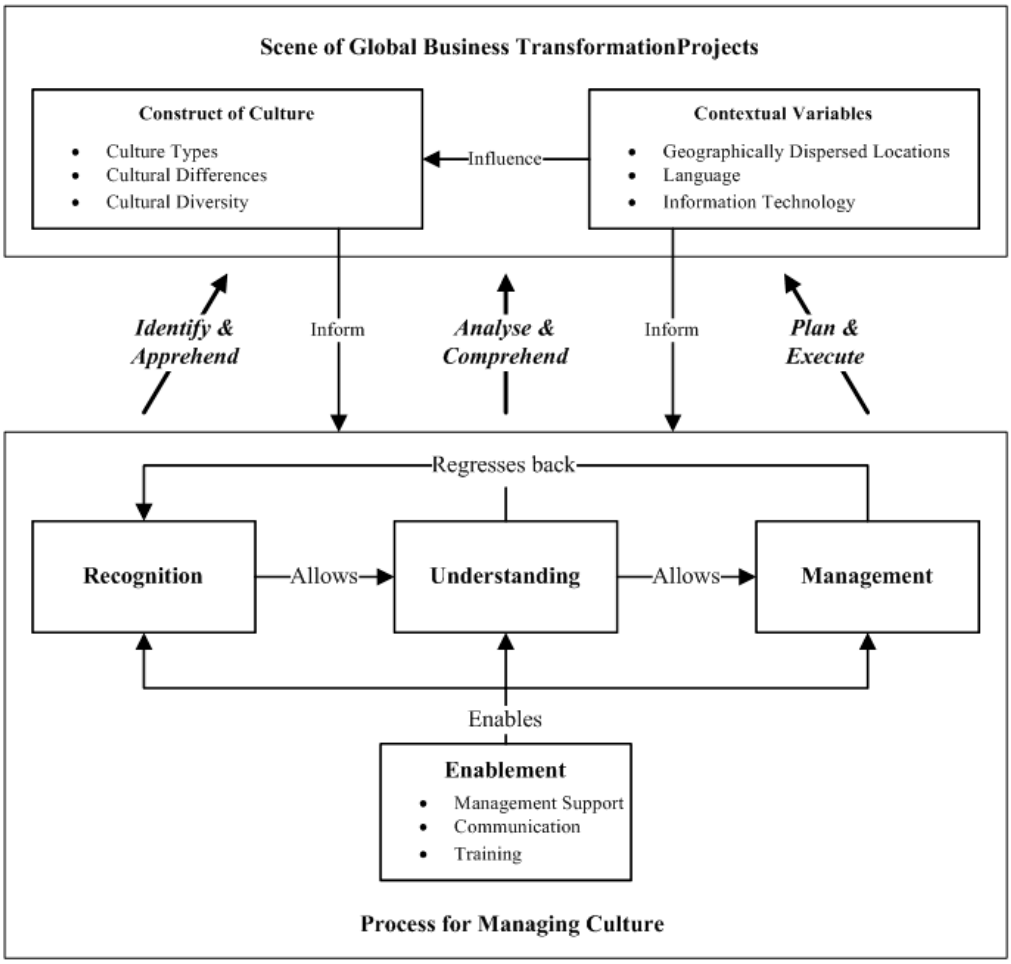
Theoretical Model of the Construct of Culture



Typology of Culture Types



Processual Model of the Process for Managing Culture



Overview Categories and Concepts derived from Data

Category / *Concept*		Description
Culture Types	*Project Culture*	Culture of a GBTP that describes the construct of culture of a specific GBTP,
	National Culture	Reflects on the behaviour, task accomplishment visible and recognized by the acting of individuals or groups specific to a country or region
	Organizational Culture	Stands for the patterns of assumptions and values shared among members of an organization that determine its, the organization's behaviour
	Industry Culture	Shares patters of assumptions, values and characteristics across organisational boundaries within an industry sector
	Professional Service Firm Culture	Is the organizational culture of a professional service firm instantiated by the professional service firm involved in the GBTP
	Theme' Culture	Represents a dominant overarching something, a theme that shapes the behaviour and manner of work conduct
Cultural Differences		Stand for discrepancies between culture types. These in turn allow to identify culture types instantiated in a GBTPs but also lead to cultural diversity.
Cultural Diversity		Stands for the presence of multiple culture types in an organisational setting, a GBTP. It is the accumulation of different culture types instantiated in a GBTP and aggregation of differences between these culture types.
Recognition		To identify and apprehend the culture types instantiated in the GBTP, the cultural differences between those, contextual variables of the GBTP as well as needs and issues present
Understanding		To analyse and then comprehend the construct of culture and contextual variables present in an GBTP as well as the implications of both
Management		To respond to the identified needs and issues in the stages of recognition and understanding by planning and executing an appropriate strategy to deal with culture.
Enablement	*Management Support*	An individual's or a group's position and its associated power as of the means to enable GBTPs by activities including decision making, resources allocation, problem solving.
	Communication	Process of exchanging, sharing, transmitting as well as making an enquiry, expressing thoughts and feelings in a manner that another person understands these.
	Training	Action of teaching an individual or a group a particular skill or type of behaviour, which prepares for a particular event or activity.
Contextual Variables	*Geographically Dispersed Locations*	Space, physical locations were a GBTP is located including associated sub-sets or groups.
	Language	Method, system of communication by written or spoken words
	Information Technology	Refers to the use of systems for processing, storing, retrieving, and, or sending information.

Overview Relationships between Categories derived from Data

Category	Relationship
Culture Types	*lead to* cultural differences
	lead to cultural diversity
Cultural Differences	*lead to* cultural diversity
	identify culture types
Recognition	*allows* understanding
	understanding may *regressess back* to recognition
	management may *regressess back* to recognition
Understanding	*allows* management
	may *regresses back* to recognition
	management may *regressess back* to understanding
Management	may *regresses back* to understanding
	may *regresses back* to recognition
Enablement	*enables* recognition
	enables understanding
	enables management
Contextual Variables	*influence* the construct of culture
	inform the process for managing culture

Summary of Culture Types Discovered

Culture Type	Properties
Project Culture	culture of a GBTP that describes the construct of culture of a specific GBTP
	is an amalgamation of the aggregated of culture types instantiated in a GBTP
	possesses the unique properties of each culture type instantiated in a GBTP
	is unique, temporary and dynamic, it develops over time, is alterable and persists for the life of a GBTP
National Culture	reflects on the behaviour, visible task accomplishment and recognised by the way individuals or groups specific to a country or region act
	is multifaceted and refers to either: Nations, regions that embrace nations, regions that are embraced by nations or ethnic groups. Though it is understood on a nation level in this study with the incorrect assumption that a national culture is homogenous since this is the best unit for studying culture (Hofstede, 2003) as well as organisations are mostly structured by nations
	is mostly referred to in the first instance, being the most tangible culture type to senior management practitioners
	is recognized upon either stereotypical expectation, differences between national cultures senior management practitioners engaged with, or comparing the own national cultural background with another
	is multifaceted in the context of GBTPs, determined by the background of individuals and geographical dispersed locations involved embeds the GBTP
Organisational Culture	stands for the patterns of assumptions and values shared among members of an organisation that determine its, the organisation's behaviour
	instantiates relevant values, beliefs and structure of a specific organisation
	is characterized by its anchorage, being either strongly or weakly established and composition, subcultures present
	influences the project culture, is mostly singular with the exception of merger & acquisitions
	spans across national cultures
	Is embraced by the industry culture
Industry Culture	shares patterns of assumptions, values and characteristics across organisational boundaries within an industry sector
	is shaped and determined by the marketplace it is serving, environment it is in operating
	embraces the organisational culture and transcends organisational boundaries
	exists in parallel to the culture type of national culture with both a nation or region
Professional Service Firm Culture	is the organisational culture of a professional service firm instantiated by the professional service firm involved in the GBTP
	has a pivotal role in GBTPs
	has an organisational as well as an individual component
	shapes GBTPs by their mandate, role, manner of work conduct and temporality
Theme' Culture	represents a dominant overarching 'something', a theme that shapes the behaviour and manner of work conduct
	is the product of the values, attitudes, competencies and patterns of behaviour around a 'theme' which is shared and enacted across the GBTP
	is conjectured to be first develop in a project, then absorbs and characterizes an organisation, upon success may be adapted by other organisations and later an industry or even across industries
	is not necessarily manifested consistent across the GBTP, particularly across involved countries
	can exist in parallel to any other culture type